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ABSTRACT

Educating students about state and local government is vital to providing the skills necessary for effective citizenship. This six-part teachers guide addresses various aspects of incorporating the study of government into the social studies curriculum. Part 1 presents a rationale and goals for teaching government. Part 2 addresses the various ways in which content can be organized. Three examples are presented: an issues approach, an historical approach, and a social science approach. The advantages of each recommended approach are described. Parts 3, 4, and 5 provide an array of activities designed to fulfill the goals delineated in Part 1 and the suggested content organizations of Part 2. In these sections, specific activities are recommended as items that teachers can use in their classrooms as well as models for constructing new activities. These instructional activities and strategies fit into three focus areas: the structure of government, the function of government, and the funding of government. This three-part organization establishes a framework for investigating political and governmental issues, behavior, and institutions. Part 6 contains a list of people, organizations, print and nonprint materials, and agencies that can help teachers develop a reservoir of materials useful in the development of curriculum and the teaching of state and local government. A number of tables and graphs appear throughout the guide. (DB)

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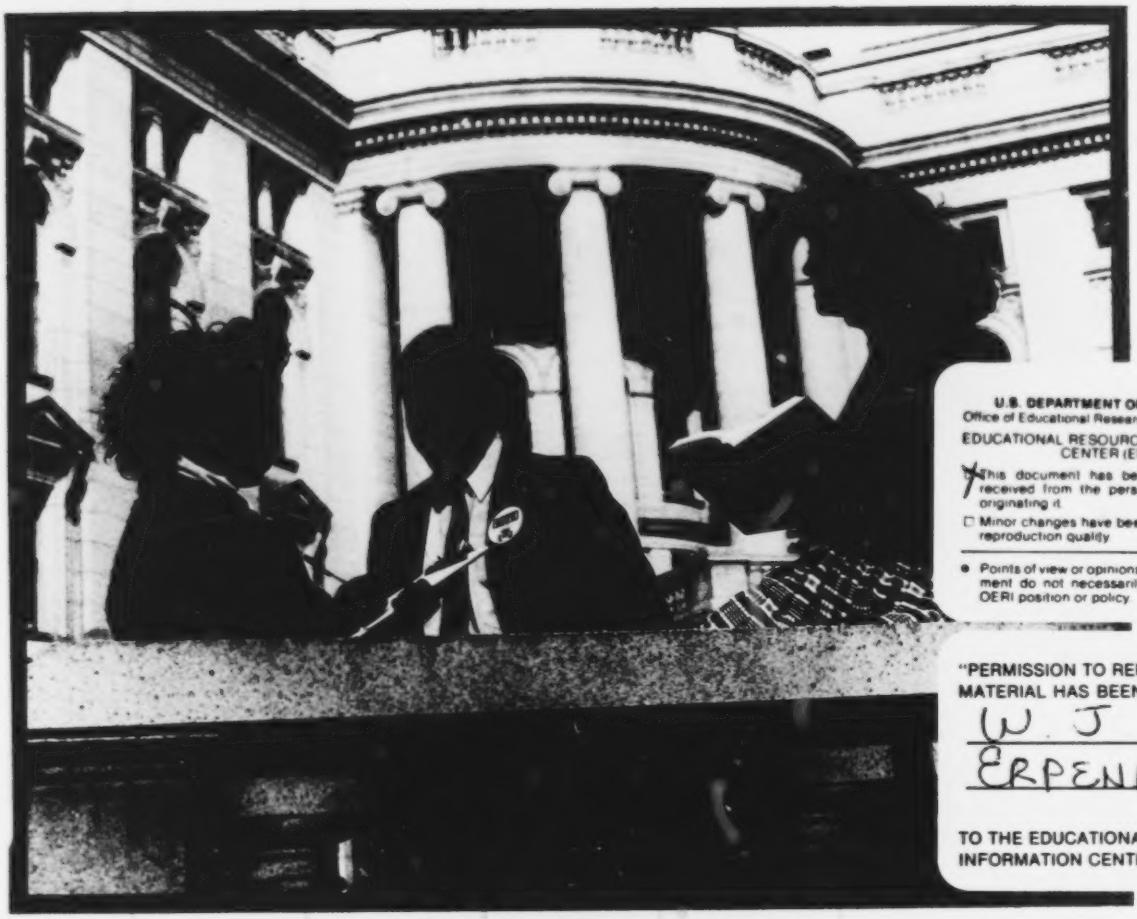

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Classroom Activities in State and Local Government

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Foreword

The development of students who are knowledgeable citizens is our first responsibility as public school educators. The foundation of civic literacy rests on not only the knowledge of how government works but on the *willingness* to participate in civic affairs. *Classroom Activities in State and Local Government* is aimed at developing citizens who know and care about the republic and who can function effectively in local units of government. This is a long and honorable tradition, but one which needs constant renewal.

On September 17, 1787, an excited citizen seeing Benjamin Franklin leaving the constitutional convention in Philadelphia rushed up to him and asked, "Dr. Franklin, what do we have—a monarchy or a republic?" Franklin replied: "A republic, if you can keep it."

As educators, we are in the business of "keeping" the constitution and the republic. Indeed, it is our top priority. As Thomas Jefferson and others have stated: "The democracy depends for its very survival upon an educated citizenry."

As a nation, we must know who we are, what we stand for, and where we are going. Without this knowledge, it is impossible to define "education" at all. For a free people, the absence of such criteria or standards is particularly dangerous; without them, we cannot hope to develop the cultural standards so necessary for judgment, criticism, review, and action. And without these activities there is no democracy.

Now is the time and here is the place for us to reaffirm our dedication to our priorities and purposes—those democratic ideals that built this nation and that provide a measure of freedom and well-being. Furthermore, we must strive to extend these blessings to fellow citizens wherever and whoever they are.

We must understand, as Jefferson did, that if citizens show indiscretion in their judgments the solution is not to take power from them but rather to discharge their indiscretions through education. Freedom and literacy are parts of the same large idea, and people who believe that freedom can be achieved and sustained without literacy simply do not understand the situation.

Join me in working for a better civic climate by using the ideas contained in this guide to build and implement quality programs that teach about the process of local and state government.

Herbert J. Grover
State Superintendent

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Preface

Teachers are, more than any other class,
the guardians of civilization.

—Bertrand Russell

More than 200 years ago, James Madison, in his *Federalist Paper No. 52*, complained about the "dismal state of civic education." If he were to question today's high school students, he might reiterate that statement. Indeed, reports and surveys show that many high school students cannot name former presidents or even identify the Bill of Rights.

Participation by an enlightened citizenry sustains the republic. It is the reason for providing a free and public education for every child. Concluding *Democracy in America*, Alexis De Tocqueville wrote: "It depends on themselves whether equality is to lead to servitude or freedom, knowledge or barbarism, prosperity or wretchedness." The quality of our lives and the legacy we leave depends on us. And, in a few short years, that responsibility will shift to our students as they become adults. If current trends continue, however, only a small percentage will answer the call.

Our students live in a world where power seems to be concentrated in fewer hands. We have more information at our disposal than the country's founders would have dreamed, but the electronic media present a necessarily encapsulated and fragmented view of current events. The listener or viewer is a passive recipient of the news and often accepts the superficial treatment of a newscast as the whole story. Furthermore, interest groups and lobbyists have developed sophisticated techniques to coalesce their power on behalf of certain issues and candidates.

In spite of this concentration, a simple fact remains: power is based upon knowledge coupled with a thorough awareness of how the system works. In short, one person can make a difference. And the skills to do so can be taught.

Unless students learn to look at different sides of an issue and to relate that to the structure of our government and society, they fail to become critical thinkers. They slip through the system with little understanding of how an issue pertains to our past and our future.

Superintendent Herbert Grover's curriculum initiatives give special attention to the goal of citizenship. As part of that goal and as an attempt to better meet new legislative mandates (PI-1803.b), this teacher's guide is offered to Wisconsin social studies teachers. This guide focuses on activities and resources to help educators develop units, or a total course, on government and citizen behavior. This guide is a key to help open many doors to the institution called government.

H. Michael Hartoonian
Supervisor, Social Studies Education

Introduction

Knowledge will forever govern ignorance;
and a people who mean to be their own governors,
must arm themselves with the power which
knowledge gives.

—James Madison (1822)

The desire to maintain social order and stability involves the establishment of a political system. Such a system not only makes political decisions peacefully and rationally, it solves problems collectively. These duties are often beyond one individual's abilities. A political system addresses the allocation of power, resources, and values. Political activities deal with power and influence. Power is the ability to make authoritative decisions to allocate resources and values in a society. Influence, on the other hand, is the ability to help determine decisions made by those who have power. While the lobbyist may have influence, the decision maker has power.

The study of government is fundamentally the study of who rules and who gets what, when, and how. Politics also has to do with the distribution of advantages and disadvantages.

These are some of the questions addressed by this guide.

- How are rules made?
- Why do people obey rules?
- How are political leaders evaluated?
- To what degree is the current political system appropriate to society's problems and potential?
- How does the political system function?
- How can the ordinary citizen participate and influence political decisions?

It is important to understand that these and other questions will be addressed only if they are placed in a meaningful context. Such a context involves issues and problems that directly affect the student as a citizen. For this reason, this is why the study of local and state government has great potential for student motivation. Teachers should make the most of this opportunity.

Overview

Rationale
Goals

Rationale

Curriculum Questions

- Why should this area of study be included in our secondary school social studies program?
- What content should be included in the reservoir of information, concepts, and questions that can help students become knowledgeable and competent in civic affairs?
- How should this content be presented to students?
- How do we know if we are making a difference?

Each part of this guide addresses one particular curricular question. Part 1 presents a rationale and goals for teaching government. Part 2 addresses the various ways in which content can be organized. Three examples of course structures are presented: an issues approach, a historical approach, and a social science approach. Each recommended approach offers certain advantages.

Parts 3, 4, and 5 of this guide present an array of activities designed to fulfill the goals delineated in Part 1 and the content organizations of Part 2. In this section, specific activities are recommended as items that teachers can use in their classrooms as well as models for constructing new activities. These instructional activities and strategies fit into the three focus areas: the structure of government, the function of government, and the funding of government. This three-part organization establishes a framework for investigating political and governmental issues, behavior, and institutions.

Part 6 of this guide contains a list of people, organizations, print and nonprint materials, and agencies that can help teachers develop a reservoir of materials useful in the development of curriculum and the teaching of state and local government.

Citizenship Education

Public education, among other things, fuels the republic, and our schools must train a citizenry that knows and cares about its state and nation, its economic, political, and social systems.

We know that students have to learn how to read, write, and think. We believe that comprehension, speaking, writing, and thinking can best be learned in subject areas such as social studies. But more importantly, educators need to understand that learning these and other skills must fit in the classroom where students learn how to apply them through inquiry and participation. Without meaningful reading and writing these tasks become mechanical and, indeed, dysfunctional to democratic citizenship.

The democratic political process, in part, enables people to gain tangible benefits. To do so, people need to know how political decisions are made, who makes those decisions, and how the process can be influenced.

Democracy, just as importantly, rests on the other principle that personal development arises from the ability to participate in public affairs. Self-esteem and dignity relate to the opportunity to share in public affairs. These two principles reflect a classical meaning of democracy. Educators must consider both dimensions of democracy when planning instruction.

We must guarantee the accuracy of what students are asked to know. Information about the political process should focus on the ways politics works in reality, not just in formal or ideal models. Elections and voting should be seen as only one part of the political process. Further, students should have opportunities to examine the political tensions within our society—one being the constant struggle between the demands of society and the rights of individuals. Educators should not teach patriotism as blind obedience to authority. Because of Watergate, the Teapot Dome affair, and other scandals, citizens need to keep a watchful eye on the government and its agencies. On the other hand, individuals need to consider themselves as part of a community and remember they have obligations and responsibilities.

In the United States, people generally tend to put their private concerns above public issues. Americans are often more concerned about the size of their homes, their television sets, and their automobiles than they are about their government. This private orientation accounts for political apathy and the gap in accurate political knowledge. The apathy manifests itself in a variety of ways. Many Americans do not vote—a right for which many Americans have fought and died.

There are various reasons for this political apathy. Lack of knowledge is one of the important considerations. Surveys indicate that only 55 percent of the adult population know how many U.S. senators each state has, and less than 20 percent can name the three branches of the federal government.

Americans generally believe that government is too complicated for them to understand, and unfortunately the belief is spreading.

With this in mind, it is important that students, as citizens, know about the political system, have the skills necessary for effective citizenship, and develop the attitudes necessary to continually learn about the American political process.

The school environment must encourage democratic behavior. The classroom should be a forum for debate where ideas can be argued. Educators must provide a range of activities that require students to practice responsibility and initiative. Paternalistic or undemanding school practices run against the purposes of democratic citizenship education. The need to scrutinize and criticize political institutions demands that students engage in inquiry. We consider inquiry as the investigation of questions, curiosity, and doubts about political events. It demands seeking data that can help answer the questions. An inquiry demands time to organize the data. And the process of inquiry enables students to consider where ideals and practices conflict.

But citizenship must extend beyond the classroom. Students should have experience testing their ideas in the general community. This experience could include asking how local government works, who actually makes decisions, and how political issues are resolved. While realizing that community participation varies according to a student's age, involvement outside school is necessary to understanding the values, attitudes, and practices constituting the political world.

Education for citizenship also requires a historical understanding. Students need the ability to place the here and now in the context of the past. The justification of present institutions involves looking back to why political structures emerged and who helped to shape them. This speaks of an accountability to Plato, Jefferson, Lincoln, Susan B. Anthony, Martin Luther King, Jr., and others. Within a historical perspective, we can gain clearer insight to our current practices.

We have sought to provide a set of principles to guide the assessment and development of civic education. The following goals and objectives provide an array of competencies that can help to develop tests. We believe this task is an ethical one. The educator is obliged to provide opportunities that enable students to engage in honest study and participation.

Goals

The components of civic understanding addressed in this guide are reflected in the following six goals. These goals represent areas of civic inquiry and should not be taken as content topics.

Ethical Responsibility

The student should understand that political action or behavior is an ethical act since it affects other individuals as well as the community and that all institutions have ethical responsibilities to all people. The responsibilities need to be continually checked with institutional practices.

The students should be aware that

- ethical judgment is a component of all political behavior because politics affects the lives of other people.
- the values of pluralism present difficulties and opportunities in a democratic society.
- voting is only one part of democratic citizenship, which also includes the obligation to know, influence, and judge the actions of elected officials.
- citizens have an ethical responsibility to practice democratic behavior.
- home and school share responsibilities to encourage behaviors and attitudes that favor the establishment of a just community.
- individuals have responsibilities as well as rights in a democracy.
- citizen roles in the global society gain importance as the world becomes increasingly interdependent.
- laws are created to influence the behavior of people.

- order in a democracy can be maintained only through citizens' voluntary compliance to the law.
- a democratically organized society or group reaches its peak of justice when each member assumes full responsibility.
- the level of social responsibility drops as people become increasingly powerless.
- political decisions should provide for the protection of the rights of dissenters.
- all societies enforce laws or sanctions.

Inquiry

The student should be able to investigate political issues and should understand how

- to use the inquiry skills of observing, communicating, classifying, inferring, predicting, formulating models, measuring, interpreting data, formulating definitions, formulating questions and hypotheses, and testing hypotheses.
- propaganda techniques are used.
- to identify political resources.
- "risk taking" is a learning process in a democratic setting.
- individuals and groups behave politically.
- to ask questions about any political institution.
- political issues have many sides that an informed citizen must examine.
- information without adequate evaluation and judgment is of little use.
- the study of issues can produce new inquiry questions.

Political Knowledge

The student should be aware of the basic concepts, theories, and methods of political science and other disciplines related to the study of politics as well as the structure of government. The student should discover how

- governments are established.
- state, local, and national governments are structured.
- governments gain and maintain power to rule.
- laws are created.
- political decisions are reached.
- the law provides penalties and sanctions for violations, and how courts determine punishment.
- people make rules in their homes, schools, and communities for their safety and health.
- influence can be political, and pressure from interest groups and lobbyists affects the political process.
- taxation supports government.

- government and laws change to the different needs and situations of the public.
- governments vary from community to community and from local to national levels because of formal and informal human relationships.
- state and federal constitutions provide a system of checks and balances between the three branches of government.
- state and federal constitutions and their interpretations by the courts shape the direction and operation of government.
- the Bill of Rights affects our lives, and how the courts limit and expand these and other rights.
- election procedures function, including selection of candidates and mechanics of voting.
- political parties are organized and function in the students' own community.
- the judicial system interprets, changes, expands, or nullifies laws as passed by the legislative system.
- the juvenile justice system differs from the adult system in jurisdiction, procedures, and philosophy.
- civil courts provide a means of redress of grievances and how they operate.
- many administrative governmental agencies serve a quasi-judicial function in enforcing administrative rules and resolving conflicts of interest.

School Environment

The student should recognize the school setting as an environment to practice the skills of political behavior. The student should be aware that

- political decisions in a democratic setting must be shared.
- the school environment is a political and ethical setting.
- personal responsibility precedes the learning process.
- all individuals in the classroom must respect one another.
- democratic political decisions require debate and open discussion.

Larger Community

The student should possess the skills necessary for political inquiry and action in the local, state, national, and global communities. The student should be aware of and able to

- chair a meeting using parliamentary procedure.
- gather, analyze, interpret, and evaluate information for political campaigns.
- use advocating and facilitating skills in group activities.
- take a local issue and follow it through the decision-making process.
- identify the sources of power and special interest groups affecting decision making in the local community.

- assume responsibility for constant involvement in government.
- participate in politics both during and between elections.
- make choices in the wide variety of political settings.
- see and argue two or more sides of a given issue.
- communicate concerns and ideas to those in power.

History

The student should have a historical perspective of the American democratic experience. The student should be aware that

- ideas and values based on tradition are strong and have lasting influence on our government.
- political ideas have human origins.
- politics and its study has two sides: reality and ideals.
- constitutional rights of individuals have changed due to social, political, and judicial pressures.
- state and national constitutions are "living" documents that must be studied, understood, and celebrated with each new generation.
- Wisconsin has a strong progressive political tradition.

2

Organizing the State and Local Government Curriculum

Framework and Requirements
Topics and Concepts/Key Ideas
Interrelated Approaches to Teaching Government
Policy and Issues Approach
Historical Approach
Social Science Approach
Format of Activities

Framework and Requirements

The Wisconsin Administrative Code PI 108(b) states that a board of education may not grant a high school diploma to any student unless the student has earned "three credits of social studies which shall incorporate instruction in state and local government."

As interpreted by the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, the high school social studies program (9-12) should complement the total elementary, middle, and secondary sequence. Within the K-12 social studies program, one-third of the time should be devoted to the study of the world, one-third to the United States, and one-third to several social sciences. Ideally, the high school sequence (9-12) would require four years of social studies. Whether the 9-12 program incorporates three or four years of required work, the government course requirement should fit within this overall framework. (See *A Guide to Curriculum Planning in Social Studies*. Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, Madison, WI, 1986).

There are several ways to organize the study of state and local government. State and local government can be taught anywhere in the 9-12 social studies program as a separate required course, or key concepts could be used in a series of units within several required social studies courses. For example, a school may cover Wisconsin state and local government in its U.S. history course, as well as in a required economics, law-related, civics, or social issues course. In all cases, the relationship between government branches and agencies would be studied so that the concept of federalism could be understood. This means that in both organizational patterns—a course or a unit within several courses—the national and international pictures should be addressed.

With either option, students will study the government, politics, economy, and culture of Wisconsin in a historical and geographic context. This study would include the nature of entitlements (resources, education, and political efficacy), the nature of different age groups, the nature of ethnicity and class, and the nature of jobs and employment trends. In addition, attention should be given to the themes of "quality of life," "progressive government," "quality education," "natural beauty of the environment," and "economic potential in a global market."

More specifically, the study of Wisconsin can be organized around three approaches: policy and issues, history, and social science. More effective programs would combine the three approaches. This guide provides insight to each approach in both school and community settings. Teachers are encouraged to bolster the study of state and local government by blending all of these approaches. Many teachers are already using these approaches and should find the ideas presented here as models that can extend and reinforce ongoing work.

Topics and Concepts/Key Ideas

The following topics and related concepts are suggestions for state and local government courses. Other topics may be added, or some may be omitted. The topics are posed in a series of broad questions for the sake of brevity and flexibility. Teachers and students together can determine the answers, however tentative.

Topics	Concepts/Key Ideas
Why study government? Why should citizens understand the nature and function of government? What is the relationship between education and citizenship? How can students learn the responsibilities of citizenship?	Socialization Participation Virtue Responsibility Rights History Voluntary compliance Freedoms Decision-making policy
How is state and local government structured? What are the branches of Wisconsin government? How is each branch organized? What roles do state agencies play in the government? How does state government compare with the federal government? What are the major components of the Wisconsin Constitution? How are Native American governments organized? How does the Wisconsin Constitution compare with the U.S. Constitution? How is power divided among local, state, and federal governments? Who is elected to office in Wisconsin government? What are the various levels of local governments within the state? How are county, city, town, and village governments organized? How are public schools organized? What are the various legislative and special districts? What are the qualifications to register and vote in Wisconsin?	**Constitution** United States Wisconsin Federalism States' rights **Executive Branch** Governor Constitutional officers Departments Independent agencies Authorities **Legislative Branch** Senate Assembly Committees Legislative districts **Judicial Branch** Supreme Court Court of Appeals Circuit courts **Tribal Government** Treaties Reservations Jurisdiction **County** Board Supervisor Executive **Special District** School board **Municipality** City, town, village Municipal courts Alderperson Chairperson Trustee Common council

Topics	Concepts/Key Ideas
How do state and local governments function? What duties are performed by the various branches of state government? What functions are provided by the county, city, town, and village levels of local government? What functions are provided by state agencies? How does a bill become law in Wisconsin? What is the relationship between government functions and the business climate in a state? What role does the governor of Wisconsin play in the legislative process? How do county, city, town, and village governments pass laws? What functions are provided by American Indian governments? What functions are provided by school boards? What jurisdiction does each level of the Wisconsin courts have? How do government functions relate to the quality of life in a state?	Bill Amendment Local control Ordinance Business climate Services Resolution Veto Jurisdiction Education Quality of life Policy Public policy
How is state and local government funded? What is the size of the Wisconsin state budget for the current fiscal year? What are the various revenue and expenditure categories of the state budget? How is the state budget determined? What are the steps? What are the roles of the governor and the Wisconsin legislature in the state budgetary process? What are the roles of state agencies in the budgetary process? What roles do influence groups and lobbyists play in the state budgetary process? What are the state's major sources of revenue and expenditures in the budget? What are the relationships between federal, state, and local governments regarding the state budgetary process? What are the revenue sources of local governments? What are the major expenditures made by the various levels of local government?	Budget Revenue Regressive tax Appropriation bill Allocation General purpose revenue Expenditure Progressive tax Fiscal year Partial veto Revenue sharing Special purpose revenue School aids

Interrelated Approaches to Teaching Government

As stated earlier, several approaches can be used to organize a program in state and local government. Whichever approach is taken, two or more methods can be used. For example, a historical approach might use the broad contours of history to organize information and might include issues and social science analysis. A social science approach, on the other hand, would use history and issues in its presentation, and a policy and issues approach would rely on history and the social sciences to give substance and analysis.

Below are examples of three approaches that can be used in an interrelated way. It should be clear that all activities suggested in this guide are based upon the understanding that the study of government includes a historical base, an investigation of issues, and an application of social science. These components can all be used to highlight and clarify the nature of social, political, and economic study.

Policy and Issues Approach

Research on government and politics in the past two decades has shown that the processes and the actors involved in forging public policy vary with the type of issue being addressed. Generally, the patterns are as follows:

Distributive Policies

The status quo is maintained or is slightly modified. Typically, the actors involved are only those individuals, organizations, and agencies directly affected, and the process is characterized by very little, if any, conflict.

Redistributive Policies

Here the issues involve taking from some and giving to others. A change in property taxes, for example, might provide relief to home owners but increase costs to commercial firms. Redistributive policy proposals usually generate intense conflict and involve many actors, including organized interest groups, ad hoc grassroots organizations, elected executives, legislators, the media, and sometimes the courts.

Regulatory Policies

Public health and safety may require certain mandates and prohibitions on individuals and water, industries have to be kept from polluting it and individuals have to be prohibited from improperly digging wells. The establishment and enforcement of regulations usually prompts intense conflict between public health and environmental activists on the one hand, and those who bear the increased costs of complying on the other.

Crises

Governments at all levels respond to crises. A flood, a shooting spree, or a threat to national security requires prompt decisions made by a few top officials and community leaders, without the deliberation or the conflict that accompanies most other public policies in our democracy.

The issues included in the mock legislature can be grouped into the four categories listed above. This will help students understand why some issues (redistributive) generate more controversy and conflict than others, and why sometimes only a small segment of government and a community seems interested in other issues (distributive).

Applying the Approach

Within each category, it is essential to be sensitive to the effects of how an issue is defined. The pay equity or comparable worth issues, for example, can be understood as an attempt to correct the ill effects on current wages due to past discriminatory practices. These same effects, on the other hand, are defined by some as the result of market forces, not discrimination. The different definitions of the same problem lead to different solutions and to the mobilization of different groups in society.

The advantages of using a policy approach are to discuss the substance of specific issues and to learn about the variety of processes and dynamics of governmental decision making. A traditional perspective is to see how the politics affects policy outcomes. It is important to see, too, how the policy issue affects the process and the politics.

Historical Approach

The state and local government mandate may be met within the structure of a one-semester course in Wisconsin history or a course in American history by developing units that address the suggested topics and concepts listed in this guide. Some of the state and local government concepts and topics may be covered in other social studies courses such as economics. It is important that curriculum planners and teachers discuss when and where to cover this material.

The following chart suggests possible points for integrating state and local government topics within the framework of a U.S. history course. This chart is suggestive and by no means exhaustive.

Wisconsin	Concepts/Terms	United States
Organizing the Territory	Towns, Public Education	Articles of Confederation Land Ordinances
Statehood and Constitution	Federalism, Structure and Function of Government	U.S. Constitution
Native Americans and Tribal Government	Government Policies—Treaties	Westward Movement and Native Americans
Immigration	Immigration Policy—Demographics, Nativism, Socialism	Immigration
Industrialization and Urbanization	Government Regulations for Safety, Health, and Welfare	Industrialization and Urbanization
Reform		Reform
Progressivism Wisconsin Idea	Political Reform, Tax Structure, Budgetary Process	Progressivism
Prohibition, Drinking Age	State Powers versus National Powers	Prohibition
New Deal Projects	Government	Depression
Public Works, Sate and Local Relief	Response to Economic Crisis	New Deal
Sen. Joseph McCarthy and McCarthyism	Individual Rights and Liberties	1950s—McCarthyism
Civil Rights, School Integration	Judiciary and Judicial Process	Brown v. Board of Education, Title IX
Environmental Issues—Pollution Control, Air and Water Quality	Federalism and Judicial Process	Environmental Legislation

A social science approach to the study of government can take different forms and address different issues and themes. It attempts to conceptualize and analyze the structural, dimensional, and operational aspects of social systems. That is, it seeks to find out how the total system functions given the interaction of its parts. This approach also allows for a comparison of different systems as well as investigations into a single institution. Finally, it looks at how individuals and groups can affect the total system.

The following questions that a social science approach can help answer include:

- What are the advantages and disadvantages of a bicameral legislature?
- How can a government be evaluated?
- How does an individual or group influence the structure, function, and funding of government?
- How can a group affect the government and its agencies?
- What is the role of education within the structure of government?
- How do states fit into the federal structure of government?
- How does Wisconsin government compare with other state governments?

Another way to study government is to use political science concepts.

The study of the political system means that all concepts in the model are understood and the relationships between components of the model can be explained. Political activity is seen as inputs and outputs of a system that allocates values, power, and resources.

Why do people form political systems? People's values differ regarding both the principles they believe and the public policies they prefer. Whose preferences shall prevail and whose shall be ignored? Whose shall be partially satisfied? In many cases, promoting one value necessarily excludes others. Answers to these questions are decided through the political process.

When the people obey government rules they do so because they respect the process that made the rules; they believe the rules are fair and necessary; and they believe that the people who made the rules have the legitimate right to do so. No government has the power or resources to police all its citizens around the clock. And citizens must voluntarily comply with the laws if the political system is to survive. If there are laws or rules that the people do not accept or that become outdated, they usually are changed.

What supports a democratic republic? In a democracy, education plays a significant role; the foundation of the government is a literate public that understands its history as well as its political and economic systems.

How does the system function? The political system then, is a method to allocate power, resources, and values. *Inputs* into the system, interests and cultural factors, are manifested in rules that are made, enforced, and judged. These produce the system *outputs* of regulations, distributions, and so on. These outputs are linked to the maintenance functions that feed and continue the process.

Format of Activities

Since schools and classroom settings vary, we encourage teachers to shape these materials to fit their needs. This guide's lessons represent only *one* approach to teaching these topics. Likewise, the materials represent only *one set of* topics. Use this guide as a springboard to tailor the best and most appropriate curriculum.

The activities in this guide can be used either in existing social studies courses or for designing a completely new course in state and local government. The materials fall into three major categories: structure, function, and funding. Under each category, corresponding units and lessons are provided.

Each unit or activity under the three organizational categories consists of the following:

- sequence sheets—daily lesson plans describing the purpose, concepts, skills, and procedures for that lesson.
- curricular materials—all of the necessary materials and/or information to conduct each lesson.

The sequence sheets contain one section that requires explanation. The Skills Focus section identifies specific skills as described in Section 3 of *A Guide To Curriculum Planning in Social Studies*, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1986.

Activities: Structure of Government

State Government Organization
Political Representation
Constitution Comparison
Federalism: States versus the Nation
American Indian Tribal Governments

State Government Organization

This activity is designed to familiarize students with the structure of Wisconsin government. Students will become familiar with the structural and functional aspects of state government by studying the organizational chart. This material provides a simple means to introduce students to what many times proves to be a difficult concept. The material was provided by the Wisconsin Legislative Reference Bureau, Madison, WI.

Lesson 1

Skills Focus

Quantitative/Interpretive
Read and interpret charts

Resources

"Organization of the Wisconsin State Government" (chart and study guide included), *Wisconsin Blue Book*

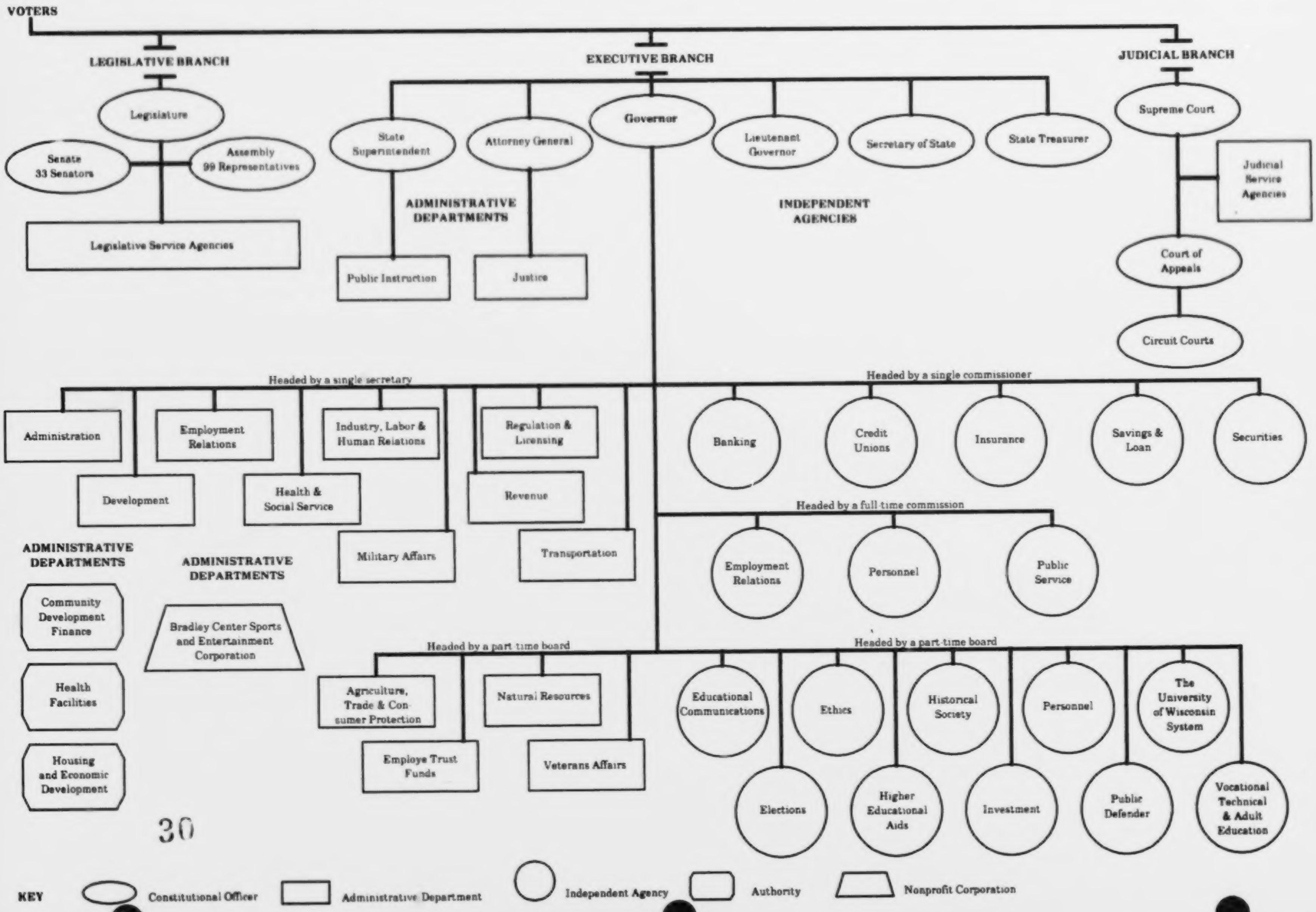
Suggested Procedure

1. Tell students they will learn about Wisconsin state government through a chart illustrating its structure.
2. Distribute the chart and study guide.
3. Have students work alone or in pairs to complete the assignment.

Follow-up Lesson

Using the study guide as a focus, discuss the organizational chart. To elaborate on the functions of each department, consult the *Wisconsin Blue Book*.

Organization of the Wisconsin State Government


VOTERS
LEGISLATIVE BRANCH
EXECUTIVE BRANCH
JUDICIAL BRANCH
Legislature
Senate 33 Senators
Assembly 99 Representatives
Legislative Service Agencies
State Superintendent
Attorney General
Governor
Lieutenant Governor
Secretary of State
State Treasurer
ADMINISTRATIVE DEPARTMENTS
Public Instruction
Justice
INDEPENDENT AGENCIES
Supreme Court
Judicial Service Agencies
Court of Appeals
Circuit Courts
Headed by a single secretary
Administration
Employment Relations
Industry, Labor & Human Relations
Regulation & Licensing
Development
Health & Social Service
Revenue
Military Affairs
Transportation
Headed by a single commissioner
Banking
Credit Unions
Insurance
Savings & Loan
Securities
Headed by a full-time commission
Employment Relations
Personnel
Public Service
ADMINISTRATIVE DEPARTMENTS
Community Development Finance
Health Facilities
Housing and Economic Development
ADMINISTRATIVE DEPARTMENTS
Bradley Center Sports and Entertainment Corporation
Headed by a part-time board
Agriculture, Trade & Consumer Protection
Natural Resources
Employe Trust Funds
Veterans Affairs
Headed by a part-time board
Educational Communications
Ethics
Historical Society
Personnel
The University of Wisconsin System
Elections
Higher Educational Aids
Investment
Public Defender
Vocational Technical & Adult Education
KEY
Constitutional Officer
Administrative Department
Independent Agency
Authority
Nonprofit Corporation

Source: *Wisconsin Blue Book 1987-1988*, Legislative Reference Bureau, Madison, Wisconsin.

Organization of the Wisconsin State Government

1. What are the three branches of state government?

2. How many constitutional officers serve in the executive branch? What are their titles?

3. Name the three levels of courts in the judicial branch.

4. Name the two chambers in the Wisconsin Legislature. How many serve in each one?

5. Look at the titles of the constitutional officers. How are these people selected?

6. The Wisconsin State Statutes define an independent agency as "a unit within the executive branch." Which two independent agencies on the chart directly provide higher education?

7. The Wisconsin State Statutes define a nonprofit corporation as a "public and corporate body created for one specific purpose." According to the chart, what is Wisconsin's only state-run nonprofit corporation?

8. The Wisconsin State Statutes define an authority as "public and corporate bodies created for specific functions." What functions do Wisconsin's authorities provide?

9. What administrative department(s) might serve the following individuals?

    a. A person who enjoys hunting and fishing

    b. A person in the National Guard

    c. A factory worker

    d. A juvenile in need of protective services

Political Representation

This activity is designed to teach students about the various political districts that govern them. The activity contains hard-to-locate material that can increase student understanding of the political world. The emphasis here is to help students understand the hierarchy of governmental districts, not the spectrum of elected officials. Thus, many of the elected offices that do fall outside a specific district—referred to as "at large" offices, such as president, governor, mayor—are not covered here. As you will find, most districts delineate a legislative unit of government.

Lesson 1

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions
Read for meaning

Resources

"Legislative and Special Districts of Government" (reading and study guide included), "Your Legislative Units of Government" (chart included), maps showing legislative districts

Suggested Procedure

1. Distribute maps and handouts.
2. Read the introduction to the reading. Explain that this activity will, in part, expand students' knowledge of our various governments.
3. Review the handouts with the students, highlighting the information on each. The circle chart might help provide students with a broad picture before they read.
4. Allow students the remainder of the period to begin the reading and study guide, which is due the next day.

Legislative and Special Districts of Government

Vocabulary

District. The division of a state, county, or municipality that sets the boundaries of a particular area. That area's citizens elect from among them a representative for the district's particular level of government.

At large. Election by or representation of a collection of districts or areas. United States senators, for example, are elected at large.

Home rule. The granting of broad legislative authority to local governments by the state.

Municipality. As used here, it refers to a unit of local government, either a city, village or town.

Introduction

"Civic IQ" is often measured by the ability to identify the various representatives from the different levels of local, state and federal government. This information, although important, can be an unreliable indicator of civic knowledge. You must understand the structure of the various districts these officials serve and where you, as a citizen, live. This reading will acquaint you with your various political districts.

U.S. Districts

The Senate. States elect two senators in at-large elections. Since states as a whole elect two senators, the district could be thought of as the entire state.

Senators serve a six-year term in the upper house of Congress. The 100-member body meets in Washington, D.C., to draft, revise, and amend federal law.

The House. Wisconsin is divided into nine Congressional districts. Each district elects one of its citizens to serve a two-year term in the lower house Congress. The 435-member body, with the Senate, drafts, revises, and amends federal law.

The number of representatives remains fixed at 435. However, the number of representatives allocated to a state is based on population. Thus, with each new census every ten years, a state may lose, gain, or maintain the number of seats it holds. The average population of Wisconsin's congressional districts was 522,836, according to the 1980 census.

State Districts

State Senate. The Wisconsin Legislature, modeled after the U.S. Congress, is also bicameral. While the number of states determines representation to the U.S. Senate, the Wisconsin Legislature divides the state into 33 districts to determine representation to its upper house.

The number of senate seats available in the capitol may vary within certain limits. The Wisconsin Constitution restricts senate membership to between one-third and one-fourth of the total number of representatives in the lower house.

Like U.S. congressional districts, Wisconsin senate districts can be redrawn every ten years based on the census. Each senate district averages 142,592 people, according to the 1980 census. The 33 elected officials serve four-year terms.

State Assembly. Wisconsin is divided into 99 assembly districts. Each district elects one representative to the Assembly. The number of available seats also may vary within constitutional limits. Membership may be no more than 100, and no less than 54. The current number of districts means that three assembly seats fall in each senate district.

Representatives serve two-year terms. As with the U.S. Congress and Wisconsin Senate, Wisconsin Assembly districts are subject to change every ten years. According to 1980 census figures, the average number of citizens in each district is around 47,530.

Local Districts

County. Each of Wisconsin's 72 counties is governed by a county board of supervisors. County boards have between 7 and 46 members, depending on population. Each represents a specific district of that county. County supervisors serve two years, except in Milwaukee County where they serve four years. County boards meet in the municipality designated the county seat. County governments provide some services for the state, as well as exercising legislative powers of its own.

In addition to county supervisors, citizens may also elect a variety of at-large officers to administer various functions. These include district attorney, county clerk, clerk of the circuit court, coroner, county executive, register of deeds, sheriff, surveyor, and treasurer. County government is a rough example of home rule, even though counties mainly serve in an administrative capacity and lack home-rule powers granted in the Wisconsin Constitution.

Special. These districts perform a specific function like education, water management, sewerage treatment. Wisconsin had 891 special districts at last count (the number changes frequently). Special districts can cut across municipal and county lines, and citizens may live in several.

The public school district is the most common. Wisconsin has 432 school districts served by a board that administers the public schools. The remaining 459 special districts consist of 7 metropolitan sewerage districts; 16 vocational, technical and adult education districts; 136 lake protection districts; and 300 sanitary districts. Most of these are administered by appointed officials or by a state agency.

Municipal—Cities, Villages, Towns. Wisconsin citizens are governed by one of three types of municipalities. The Wisconsin Constitution provides for a system of home rule. The system gives municipal governments the right to enact ordinances that augment, but do not interfere or violate state law. In addition to elected positions, municipalities may elect or sometimes appoint officials like an assessor, attorney, clerk, constable, engineer, municipal judge, or treasurer, to help administer its government.

- *Cities.* Each of Wisconsin's 188 cities has one of three governmental structures. The most common form, the mayor-council, is used in 176 cities. In this form of municipal government, cities are divided into districts that elect a representative to the common council, usually for a two-year term. Some cities, however, may elect representatives at large. The common council, city government's legislative branch, passes ordinances and performs various administrative functions.

A second form of city government, the council-manager plan, consists of a common council that hires a city manager to manage the affairs of the city. Council members are elected from districts or at large. The remaining 12 cities operate under this system.

A third form of city government, known as the commission plan, is not used in Wisconsin. Under this system, voters elect five to seven commissioners who run various city departments, such as police, fire, health and welfare. The group also meets to enact ordinances.

- *Villages*. Wisconsin has a total of 393 villages, which are governed by a village board and a village president. The president and board members are chosen at large. Village boards usually consist of two to six members who serve two-year terms. The board and president exercise basically the same power and responsibility as city officials.
- *Towns*. Wisconsin's 1,267 towns are governed by a board, usually comprised of three supervisors elected to two-year terms. One of the three supervisors is elected to serve also as the town chairperson, who handles the town's executive functions.

Legislative and Special Districts of Government

1. How many senators does Wisconsin send to Washington, D.C.? How long is their term?
2. How would you describe the district of a U.S. Senator?
3. What is the function of a senator?
4. How many congressional districts are in Wisconsin? In the United States?
5. How long is a representative's term?
6. How are the number of representatives for a state determined?
7. What is the function of a representative?
8. What is the average population of Wisconsin's congressional districts?
9. How many Wisconsin Senate districts are there?
10. How long is a senator's term?
11. What is the minimum and maximum size of the state senate?
12. When is the next year in which senate district lines may be changed? What would determine the change?
13. What is the average population of a state senate district?
14. What is the function of the Wisconsin Senate?
15. How many assembly districts are in Wisconsin?
16. What is a state representative's term?
17. What is the minimum and maximum number of representatives allowed in Wisconsin?
18. How does the U.S. census affect assembly districts?
19. What is the average population in each assembly district?
20. How many counties are in Wisconsin?
21. What is the name of the governing body of a county?
22. What is the minimum and maximum number of supervisors who serve on a county board?

23. What is the term of office for county supervisors?

24. What are the communities that house county government called?

25. What other elected positions do counties have?

26. Define special district. Give an example.

27. How many special districts were there in Wisconsin at last count?

28. What is the most common type of special district? How many are in Wisconsin?

29. What are the three types of municipal government?

30. Describe home rule.

31. Where do municipal governments get their power?

32. How many cities are in Wisconsin?

33. Describe the three forms of city governments, and list the number of each operating in Wisconsin.

34. How many villages are in Wisconsin?

35. What is the governing body of a village called?

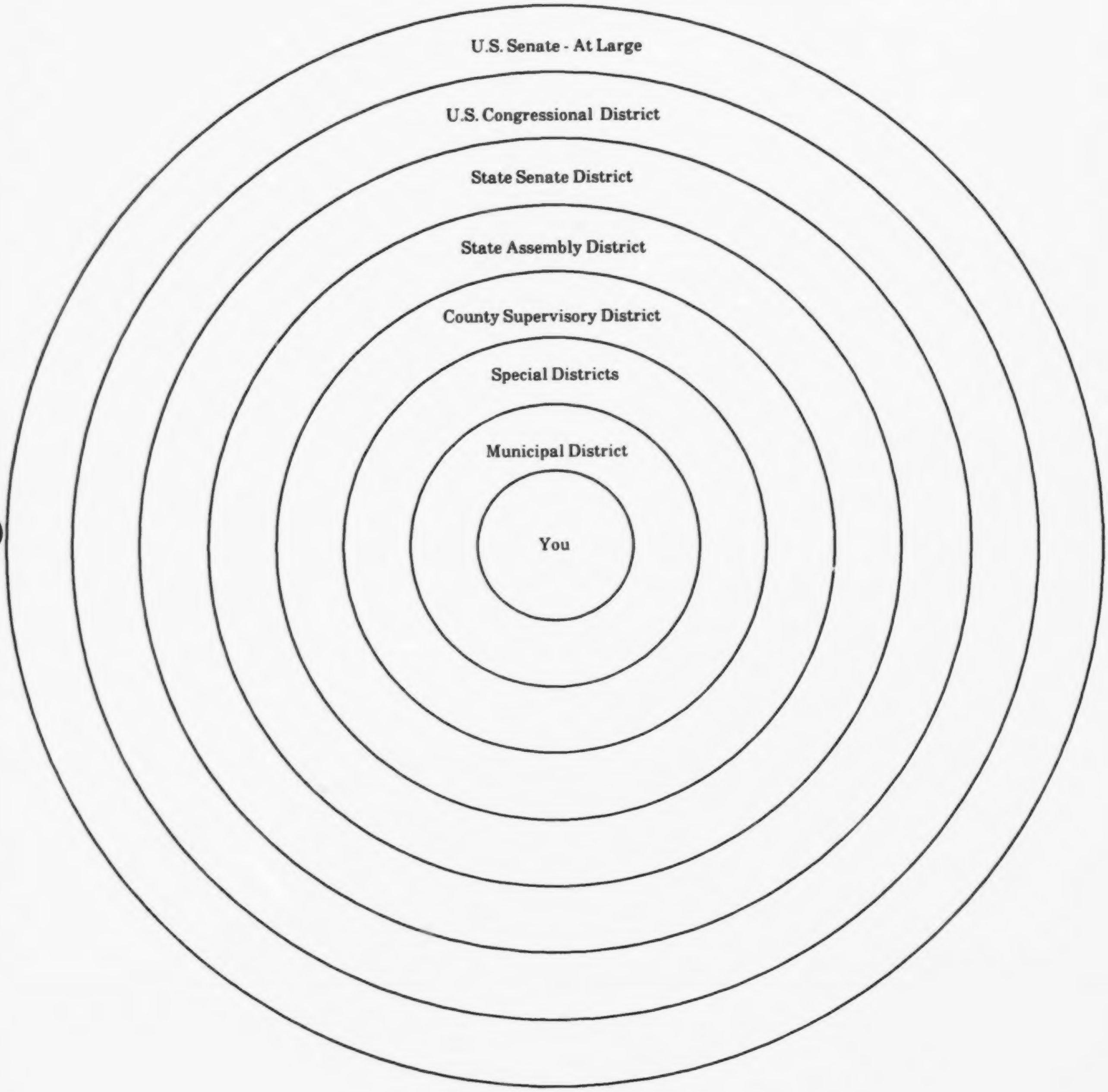
36. How many people usually serve on a village board? What is their term of office?

37. How many towns are there in Wisconsin?

38. What is the usual form of town government?

39. How many people usually are elected to a town board? How long are their terms?

Your Legislative Units of Government


U.S. Senate - At Large
U.S. Congressional District
State Senate District
State Assembly District
County Supervisory District
Special Districts
Municipal District
You

This lesson may be expanded to include local units of government. Maps and other data on local units—county, city, village, town, special districts—can usually be obtained from local government offices.

Lesson 2

Skills Focus

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups

Communicating
Read for meaning

Resources

"Know Your U.S. and Wisconsin Legislators and Their Districts" (study guide included), local and state maps, "Elected Officials by Level and Branch" (data sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Discuss the reading from Lesson 1. Use the study guide questions as a focus.
2. Distribute the handout.
3. Explain to students that this activity will help them organize the data regarding legislative districts and representatives that affect them.
4. Have students use the information from Lesson 1 to complete the answers. This assignment is due the next day.

Follow-up Lesson

Discuss student answers to the study guide. Distribute and discuss the Data Sheet to give students a broad understanding of the various representatives we elect.

Know Your U.S. and Wisconsin Legislators and Their Districts

1. Name the two U.S. Senators from Wisconsin.
2. How many U.S. congressional districts does Wisconsin have?
3. What U.S. congressional district(s) is found in your county?
4. Who is the U.S. representative(s) from your county?
5. How many senate districts are in the Wisconsin Legislature?
6. How many Wisconsin senate districts are found in your county? What are they?
7. Who are the state senators who represent your county?
8. How many assembly districts are in the Wisconsin Legislature?
9. How many Wisconsin assembly districts are found in your city? What are they?
10. Who are the assembly members who represent your city?

List of Common Elected Officials By Level and Branch

Executive Branch	*Legislative Branch*	*Judicial Branch*
Federal Level		
President and Vice President—Elected at large	Senator—Elected at large from each state Representative—Elected from districts in each state	Supreme Court Justices and Other Judges—Appointed by the president and approved by the senate
State Level		
Governor, Lt. Governor, Treasurer, Attorney General, Secretary of State, and Superintendent of Public Instruction—Elected at large	Senator—Elected from 1 of 33 districts Assemblyperson—Elected from 1 of 99 districts	Supreme Court Justice—Elected at large Court of Appeals Justice—Elected from 4 districts Circuit Court Justice—Elected by each county
County Level		
County Executive,* Treasurer, Register of Deeds, Coroner,* Surveyor*—Elected at large	Supervisor—Elected from districts Clerk—Elected at large	District Attorney, Clerk of Circuit Courts, Sheriff—Elected at large
Municipal Level—City		
Mayor, Treasurer,* Assessor,* Engineer,* Attorney*—Elected at large	Common Council Member–Elected from districts Clerk*—Elected at large	Municipal Judge*—Elected at large
Municipal Level—Village		
Village President, Treasurer,* Assessor*—Elected at large	Village Trustee—Elected at large Clerk*—Elected at large	Municipal Judge*—Elected at large
Municipal Level—Town		
Town Chairperson, Treasurer, Assessor*—Elected at large	Supervisor, Clerk—Elected at large	Municipal Judge,* Constable*—Elected at large

*These positions are not found in all local governments. Also, the officials for these positions may not be elected, but may be appointed by either the executive or legislative branch at that level. Differences in population and the formation of the governments account for the variations.

Constitution Comparison

This activity is designed to provide students with an opportunity to learn about the Wisconsin Constitution. This topic is often ignored due to the lack of classroom materials. As a result, most students learn about the U.S. Constitution but often learn little about the state version. Through this activity students will compare the two documents to increase their knowledge of both.

Lesson 1

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully and ask questions

Resources

"U.S. and Wisconsin Constitutions" (data sheet and vocabulary included), *Wisconsin Blue Book*

Suggested Procedure

1. Ask the students to speculate about the source of Wisconsin law. See if anyone can cite the state constitution. End this short discussion by noting that we are really governed by two constitutions, the U.S. Constitution and the state constitution.
2. Distribute and discuss the data sheet, which can be modified to meet specific needs.
3. Discuss and clarify selected words and concepts from the vocabulary list. Definitions can be compiled to assist student understanding. Any remaining items on the list can be assigned as homework.

U.S. and Wisconsin Constitutions

Common features of state constitutions

- All state governments are based on written constitutions.
- State constitutions are the highest form of law in each state.
- State constitutions must conform to the provisions of the U.S. Constitution.
- The U.S. Constitution guarantees all states a "republican form of government" (Article IV, Section 4). This means that each state is guaranteed a representative government elected by the people.
- Four common components of state constitutions:
  - —Most, including Wisconsin, have a preamble, which defines the basic purpose of state government.
  - —Each state constitution includes a section defining citizen rights that may not be infringed upon by state governments. This section is similar to the Bill of Rights in the U.S. Constitution. However, many states list additional rights.
  - —State constitutions are usually longer and more detailed than the U.S. Constitution, and all provide for the same three branches of government.
  - —All state constitutions may be amended or revised.

Powers granted to the federal and state governments by the U.S. Constitution

- Reserved powers: powers granted to the federal government
  - —Regulate commerce: interstate and foreign
  - —Coin money
  - —Govern territories
  - —Conduct relations with foreign countries
  - —Declare war
  - —Provide for armed services
  - —Establish post offices
  - —Issue patents and copyrights
  - —Establish standard weights and measures
  - —Enact naturalization and immigration laws
- Delegated Powers: powers granted to the states
  - —Provide education to citizens
  - —Conduct elections
  - —Establish local government
  - —Charter and regulate businesses
- Shared Powers: powers shared by both federal and state government
  - —Levy and collect taxes
  - —Borrow money
  - —Enact and enforce laws
  - —Establish a courts system
  - —Protect the health and welfare of the people

History of the Wisconsin Constitution

- August 6, 1846: U.S. Congress grants the Wisconsin Territory permission "to form a constitution and State government for the purpose of being admitted to the Union."

- April 1847: Wisconsin voters rejected the first draft by a vote of 14,119 "for" and 30,231 "against" because of several controversial provisions proposed at the first constitutional convention in Madison. These included:
  - —A provision stating that married women be allowed to own property.
  - —A provision providing for the election versus political appointment of judges.
  - —The exclusion of a provision allowing blacks the right to vote. (This issue was placed on a separate ballot made available at the polls on the day of the ratification vote. The ratified version of the constitution provided that only white males, 21 and older, be allowed to vote. In 1849, however, Wisconsin passed a law giving blacks the right to vote.)
  - —Provisions banning banks in Wisconsin.
- March 1848: A second constitutional convention (made up of only 6 of the original nearly 70 delegates who attended the first convention) submitted its proposal to the voters for approval. It was approved by a vote of 16,799 to 6,384.
- May 29, 1848: Wisconsin becomes the 30th state.
- Other points
  - —The original copy of the constitution is missing. Some believe it was burned or thrown out by mistake or might be in the hands of a collector.
  - —Since its enactment in 1848, Wisconsin voters have elected to change or repeal parts of the constitution 105 times.

Vocabulary Words and Concepts

This list of words and concepts was compiled in the order they appear in each document. Items that appear in both documents are listed only once.

U.S. Constitution

bicameral
apportionment
census
impeachment
exemption
civil office
enactment
revenue bills
veto
veto override
naturalization
bankruptcy
militia
elastic
writ of habeas corpus
ex post facto laws
tender
bills of attainder
electoral college
pardon and reprieves power
state of the Union
jurisdiction
treason
republican form of government
supremacy of federal law over state law
ratification
quartering
due process
criminal
grand jury
petit jury
double jeopardy
civil
self-incrimination
eminent domain
bail
abolition
civil rights
emancipated
suffrage
income tax
prohibition
repeal
poll taxes
primary and general elections

Wisconsin Constitution

inherent rights
libel
feudel tenures
alienation
parochial
convicted felons
quorum
compulsory
contempt
expulsion
presiding officers
ordinances
auditing
state of the State
circuit court
municipal court
progressive
fiscal bills
county seats
statutory
franks

Constitution Comparison

Lesson 2

Skills Focus

Communication
Read for meaning

Analyzing

Inferring

Resources

U.S. Constitution, Wisconsin Constitution, "U.S. and Wisconsin Constitutions" (study guide included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Distribute copies of both constitutions and the study guide. Review all items with the students.
2. After students have been briefed on the information, allow them the rest of the period to work on the study guide, which is due the next day. Allowing students to work in pairs may help them get through the task with fewer problems.

Follow-up Lesson

Discuss student answers to the study guide. It might be interesting to investigate questions 21 and 22. Also, a discussion of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights could reveal shortcomings in the two constitutions.

U.S. and Wisconsin Constitutions

1. Articles I, II, and III of the U.S. Constitution describe the three branches of the federal government. Name them.

2. What two officials head the executive branch?

3. Article I, Sections 2 and 3 of the U.S. Constitution reveal the names of the two houses of Congress, what are they?

4. Articles IV, V, and VII of the Wisconsin Constitution describe three branches of the state government. What are they?

5. What two officials head the executive branch of state government?

6. Article IV, Sections 4 and 5 reveal the names of the two houses of the state legislature. What are they?

7. The first ten amendments to the U.S. Constitution, passed in 1791, are known as the Bill of Rights. What article of the Wisconsin Constitution lists the rights of state citizens?

8. What sections of this article mention some of the rights covered in the U.S. Constitution under Amendment I?

9. What level of government, state and federal, grants the right to bear arms?

10. Compare Article I of the Wisconsin Constitution with the Bill of Rights. List the areas covered only by state government.

11. List the areas covered only by the federal government.

12. Article II, Section 2 of the U.S. Constitution gives the president power to pardon people who have committed federal crimes. Does the governor of Wisconsin have the power to pardon people who commit state crimes? If so, what part of the Wisconsin Constitution grants that power?

13. What level of government (state, federal or both) is given the following powers by its constitutions? List the article or amendment and section.

    a. coining money

    b. transportation of school children

    c. powers of taxation

    d. establishment of courts

    e. declaration of war

f. establishment of a supreme court

14. What level of government, state or federal, has the constitutional power to establish municipal courts? List the specific article, or amendment and section.

15. List five powers "forbidden to the states" in the U.S. Constitution.

16. List five powers "forbidden to Congress" in the U.S. Constitution.

17. What level of government is responsible for providing education as specified in its constitution? List the specific article or amendment.

18. To amend either the Wisconsin or U.S. Constitution, what article would you look under in each case?

19. What level of government, state, federal or both, gives 18-year-olds in Wisconsin the right to vote? What level(s) give women in Wisconsin the right to vote? List the specific article, or amendment and section.

20. Identify the article or amendment from the Wisconsin or U.S. Constitution that answers the following questions:

    a. How does the electoral college work?

    b. What forbids Wisconsin from charging a tax to vote?

    c. What allows Wisconsin to maintain a National Guard?

    d. Where do your county and local governments get the power to rule?

    e. Where would you look to learn about impeachment procedures for the president? The governor?

    f. Where would you look to learn the procedure if a president-elect died before taking office?

    g. What law would protect you from losing all of your property if you went bankrupt in Wisconsin?

    h. What section of what constitution would have to be changed in order for Upper Michigan to become part of our state?

    i. Where do organizations, such as the Boy Scouts, get their constitutional right to use school facilities for evening meetings?

21. If you had the power to change either constitution, what rights would you add? Why?

22. If you had the power to change either constitution, what rights would you delete? Why?

Federalism: States versus the Nation

This activity offers students the opportunity to study the balance between federalism and states' rights. This issue is as old as our nation, yet is as current as recent controversies. The activity will allow students to analyze arguments on both sides of the issue and to formulate and apply their own views.

Lesson 1

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions
Read for meaning

Decision Making

Resources

"Federalism versus States' Rights" (reading included), "Distribution of Powers" (data sheet included), "Which Side Are You On?" (reading/activity included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Tell students that they will be looking at an issue as old as our country. Provide introductory information as needed given the students' level of prior knowledge.
2. Distribute the reading "Federalism versus States' Rights" and the data sheet. Review these handouts with the students. Explain that the handouts will help the class gain a deeper understanding of the issue.
3. Distribute the handout "Which Side Are You On?" Discuss the instructions and survey the readings with the students.
4. Allow the remainder of the period to begin the readings. Assign the first draft of the position paper for the next day.

Follow-up Lesson

Conduct an editing workshop to give students a chance to improve their position papers. Assign students to groups of three. Have them read the papers of other group members, making constructive criticisms.

Federalism versus States' Rights

A fundamental question facing the nation since its birth has been the balance of authority between states and the central government. As early as 1776, during the initial attempt to form a nation, the debate brought about a short-lived confederated government.

A confederation is a form of government with the bulk of power vested in the states, while the central government remains weak. Under this form, the central government held the states together for national defense, regulated trade and currency, and established a postal system. The central government consisted of a congress, that basically served as a forum for the state delegates to discuss issues of mutual concern. This form of government had limited success.

By 1787, 12 states, all but Rhode Island, sent delegates to Philadelphia to restructure the confederation. Out of this emerged the U.S. Constitution, which transformed the country into a nation of states united by a strong national government.

The struggle over the distribution of power, however, did not disappear with the new Constitution. Through the nation's history, the question of states' rights versus federalism is central to many of our controversial issues. Issues such as the 55-mph speed limit and mandatory seat belt laws have revolved around this struggle.

Wisconsin, like other states, has fought for its rights, as in the recent battle over the drinking age. Wisconsin maintained that the legal drinking age should be 19. The federal government wanted the age raised to 21 in all states. To push its case, Congress threatened to withhold millions of dollars for highway improvement from states that did not comply with the guideline. Wisconsin, fearing the loss, raised the drinking age to 21.

The action of using federal funds to gain compliance with federal mandates raises a new side of the controversy. Historically, arguments over states' versus federal rights were mostly philosophical. People debated the issue based on beliefs about basic individual and societal rights. Today, because of tighter budgets the economic side of this issue is being questioned.

Beginning in 1981, the amount of federal dollars sent to state and local governments diminished. States filled the void by raising taxes an average of one-third. With this trend, states and even cities have entered areas previously under the exclusive control of the federal government. Des Moines, Iowa, is trying to create new markets for agricultural goods in China. California uses taxes from offshore oil production to aid low-income housing programs. Wisconsin, which has gone far beyond federal guidelines, requires that child support payments be automatically deducted from the paychecks of working parents.

The U.S. Constitution does not specify which rights belong to the federal government, which belong to the states, and which are shared. Thus the Constitution leaves room for very broad interpretations about the balance of power. The issue seems to defy resolution. It is as old as the Constitution, as volatile as to be a major cause of the Civil War, and as recent as the drinking age controversy.

Distribution of Powers

Powers granted to the federal and state governments in the U.S. Constitution.

Reserved powers granted to the federal government include the power to

- Regulate commerce (interstate and foreign)
- Coin money
- Govern territories
- Conduct relations with foreign countries
- Declare war
- Provide armed services
- Establish post offices
- Issue patents and copyrights
- Establish standard weights and measures
- Enact naturalization and immigration laws

[Note: The federal government also has implied power which allows it to pass laws not specifically covered here but drawn from the powers listed above.]

Delegated powers granted to the states include the power to

- Provide education to citizens
- Conduct elections
- Establish and empower local governments
- Charter and regulate business

Shared powers shared by both federal and state government include the power to

- Levy and collect taxes
- Borrow money
- Enact and enforce laws
- Establish a court system
- Protect the health and welfare of the people

Which Side Are You On?

Instructions

1. Read each article.
2. List the reasons supporting each article's position.
3. Write a one- to two-page position paper explaining which view you agree with and why. You may wish to take a compromise position that merges ideas from both sides. But be aware that this could be quite challenging.

In Favor of States' Rights

The following narrative was adapted from articles written by the editorial board of *USA Today*, Edwin W. Edwards, Janet Sharp Hermann, and U.S. Senator Strom Thurmond. *USA Today*, August 2, 1984.

Our ancestors would be appalled at the federal restrictions we accept without ever invoking our power of states' rights.

From the beginning, the colonists jealously guarded their local sovereignty (right to govern) and finally fought a revolution for the right to remain free from central governmental control. After independence, the 13 colonies were so reluctant to surrender any authority that the first confederation was too weak to survive. In 1789, the Constitution's framers grudgingly granted federal power for carefully stated purposes.

In the Civil War, the South claimed state sovereignty to protect slavery, but Northern military force established the supremacy of federal authority. By the 20th century, industrialization, with interstate transportation and national markets, necessitated increasing federal regulation. In the 1930s, the New Deal sought to relieve the miseries of the Great Depression, and in doing so greatly expanded the role of the federal government. The 1960s civil rights movement marked the final defeat of state supremacy, as even the schools, long thought of as a stronghold of local control, fell to federal authority.

Something for nothing is what is expected when the federal government takes over duties and responsibilities more effectively handled at the state level. When the nation's founders wrote our Constitution, they were vague concerning which powers were granted to federal and state governments.

Now, our nation is too big and too complex for people who work in Washington to have a good idea of what is happening in the rest of the country. On some issues, it is better that they are not involved.

Each of us should have access to a high quality of life with as little interference from big government as possible. The federal government should focus only on issues vital to our national and international interest.

Yet today, when the nation should be concentrating on such issues as national defense and the global economy, the federal government is deeply involved with trivial state issues. The federal government, for example, stepped into a somewhat petty dispute over a Louisiana presidential primary. People in Louisiana questioned why the federal government forced them to hold a $1 million presidential primary when they badly needed the money for health services, education, and prisons.

Many areas should be "hands-off" for the federal government. It should be the states' initiative to decide such things as how to transport students, whether to offer free textbooks, and what level of state health services to provide. It is the state's role to decide on the fairest, least painful method of taxation, and what services to provide with these tax dollars.

One legitimate function of a state's power is to protect the basic freedoms of its citizens. This is normally done through a bill of rights found in every state constitution. States have performed this function well, and until the early 1900s, they were mainly responsible for protecting the basic liberties of Americans.

The states need federal money, and the governors want as much of it as is available. Perhaps that is the reason not one governor complains that Washington is taking over states' rights and responsibilities. However, for every dollar the federal government hands to a state, there goes a demand that the state enforce federal rules. Washington already tells the states how fast people can drive and how old they can be before they drink.

Some critics say states' rights do not matter, that every major problem is either national or global. That is wrong. State rights matter as much as the federal responsibility to guarantee equal protection under the law. Apart from national security, the biggest problems in the country are those that are closest to the people—problems like achieving educational excellence, promoting public health, combatting crime, enhancing local economies, and delivering basic services. It is the states that are closest to the problems and are thus in the best position to deal with them.

In closing, let it be said that the American system of federal government will work best as a system of 50 individual units, each serving as a laboratory for experimentation, for finding solutions to problems. That is the real, but untapped, strength of the federal system.

Opposed to States' Rights

The following narrative is adapted from an editorial written by Henry Steele Commager. *USA Today*, August 2, 1984.

There are two things that can be said of states' rights.

First, the term itself is meaningless. States do not have rights, people have rights.

From the beginning, the American people allotted some of those rights to their national government, and others, thought to be local, to their states. At their pleasure, the people can change this allocation, as indeed they did in the 14th Amendment and subsequent amendments, which forbade states from enforcing laws which deprive any citizens of rights given to them by the federal government.

Second, the objection to the notion of states' rights is practical, not theoretical. We no longer have to fear rule by a foreign power as we did in 1789. Thus, the philosophical argument against a big central government is no longer relevant.

Every major problem confronting the American people today is national or global. The education of our children would still be carried on by segregated systems in many states were it not for the intervention of the federal government. Cleaning up environmental problems, sewerage treatment, acid rain, and toxic wastes require both a national and global approach. Such problems are beyond the scope of the states. In addition, problems such as conserving natural resources, improving public health, managing a national-global economy, fighting crime, and terrorism, preserving rights and liberties, and maintaining the commitment to the general welfare must be dealt with through a federal approach.

None of the powers needed to solve these issues can be exercised effectively by states. All of them—and others on the horizon—must be dealt with by the national government. Only in this way will solutions that are fair and consistent for all citizens be found.

Try as he might, even President Reagan, who came to power on a platform that promised a return to states' rights, could not completely honor his vow. Instead, the Reagan administration, more than any other in modern history, sat with its feet on both sides of the federalism versus states' rights fence.

On the one hand, its policies of building up the most powerful military establishment in history as has always been the case with war and preparation for war, created a strong central government.

Thus, whatever gestures the administration made toward returning power to the states was counter-productive and futile, for the pressure to form a strong federal government in order to accommodate this military build-up was too powerful.

From its origins in the Civil War decade, the Republican Party has been a party of nationalism and centralization of government. The idea of President Reagan, or any president, marching back to state sovereignty and committing himself to reverse the verdict of the Civil War would be comic if it were not so dangerous.

As John Marshall, a former Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, wrote: "In making war we are one people. In making peace we are one people. In all commercial regulations, we are one and the same people, . . . America has chosen to be in many respects and to many purposes a nation (instead of a confederacy of separate states), and for all these purposes [its] government is complete."

Federalism: States versus the Nation

Lesson 2

Skills Focus

Group Participation
Listen to and be considerate of people's contributions and points of view
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups

Social Judgment
Arrive at reasoned, ethical decisions and positions, and evaluate their social consequences

Decision Making

Resource

"Distribution of Powers" (activity sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Divide the class into three groups based on their positions (pro, con, compromise) from the assignment in Lesson 2. Form subgroups of three to four students within each category.
2. Distribute the handout. Explain the instructions to the class. Allow groups the remainder of class to complete the activity. The categories may be modified to fit a specific purpose.

Follow-up Lesson

With students sitting in their groups, go through the issues in each category, and have the groups state their position and their reasons. Encourage constructive debate. Look for agreement between opposing groups and disagreement between smaller groups within a group. Ask if the Constitution would be better if it were more specific. Ask those who might opt for more specificity what types of things should be included. Ask for explanations.

Distribution of Powers

You have all been placed in this group because you hold the same position on the issue of states' rights versus federalism. Your group's task will be to develop a list of powers the group thinks should be delegated to the states, the federal government, or both. Below you will find a list of items under various categories. After each item note who should have the power to control that area, and briefly explain why. At the end of each category there is space to add other items that your group determines need to be delegated to control by a specific power. If an item is added include a brief explanation. Do the same for items deleted.

Education

Equal educational opportunities for all citizens
High school graduation requirements and minimum competencies
Prayer in public schools
Other

Health and Social Services

Level of welfare benefits
Abortion legislation
Other

Justice

Waiver age for juveniles to be tried as adults
The use of capital punishment
Other

Environment

Clean air and water standards
Nuclear waste disposal policy
Other

Transportation

Speed limits
Seat belt laws
Other

Miscellaneous

Drinking age
Minimum wage laws
Other

American Indian Tribal Governments

This activity is designed to introduce students to tribal governments in Wisconsin. The material was adapted from a unit entitled "American Indian Tribal Sovereignty," developed by the Madison Metropolitan School District, Madison, Wisconsin. It is strongly recommended that teachers use all five lessons in the correct sequence. This will ensure a historical perspective and proper discussion of the issues.

Lesson 1

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully and ask questions.

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups.

Resources

"Tribal Governments: An Overview" (reading and data sheet included), "Wisconsin Tribal Lands in the Early 1800s and Today" (maps included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Informally survey the class to see what they know about American Indians. From their responses other questions could be asked. For example, if a student responds that American Indians were the first citizens to occupy this country, it might be asked if they are citizens today? Try to guide the discussion toward the focus of the activity, namely the structure of tribal government, its history, and current issues. Student responses might be summarized and written on the board to enhance understanding.
2. Distribute the handouts. The reading may be read together as a class, read independently, or converted into a lecture
3. After students review the materials, discuss and clarify the information.

Tribal Governments: An Overview

For some people there is another kind of government in Wisconsin and in many other states that is of greater importance than state or local government. Those people are the American Indians. Their governments are called tribal councils, business committees, or tribal legislatures.

Tribal councils usually comprise elected representatives from the tribe. The size of these councils varies from as few as six members for the Forest County Potawatomi Tribal Council in Wisconsin to as many as 74 for the Navajo Tribal Council in Arizona.

Tribal councils are governing bodies with substantially the same power over Indian people that other governments have over their citizens. They can make laws; levy taxes; determine tribal membership; buy, lease and sell land; conduct elections; and establish and maintain a police force and a court system. In short, they *regulate* and *serve* their populations. Usually their populations are tribal members, but tribal governments may sometimes regulate non-Indian people living or working on tribal land. They also serve Indian people living outside tribal boundaries, and negotiate with other governments—federal, state, or local—on behalf of their citizens.

Like state governments, tribal governments are subject to the U.S. Constitution. They may not raise armies, print their own money, or levy import or export taxes. Despite the restrictions, the similarities end here. Indian tribes are unique sovereign entities—separate nations within the nation. Both treaties and the U.S. Constitution established this relationship.

Across the Country

Conflict between Indian and non-Indian people runs throughout U.S. history. Because of the European settlers' insatiable lust for land, minerals, timber, and furs the Indians were driven from their lands and onto reservations. Indian author Sotsisowah, (Saht' sis o wah) John Mohawk, wrote, "This process (did) more than simply take the land . . . away from the people. The process by which territories are brought under the control of people foreign to those territories is called imperialism. An aspect of that process is one called colonization. Colonization is a process of changing the behavior of a people to suit the desire of the colonizer—that is also, at base, the definition of slavery."

Life on reservations can be bright as well as bleak. American Indians have among the highest unemployment rate, infant mortality rate, school drop-out rate, and the lowest life expectancy in the country. On the other hand, Indians on many reservations enjoy economic growth and prosperity. Many tribes operate successful lumber industries, for example, and other businesses that flourish.

In Wisconsin

Eleven federally recognized tribes live in Wisconsin: the six Chippewa nations, and the Menominee, Oneida, Potawatomi, Stockbridge-Munsee, and Winnebago. The Brotherton, another Wisconsin tribe, is not recognized by the federal government. The Chippewa are embroiled in one of the latest and most-publicized conflicts between Indians and non-Indians.

Although they ceded roughly the northern third of Wisconsin to the government in 1837

Adapted from "American Indian Tribal Sovereignty," Madison (Wisconsin) Metropolitan School District.

and 1842 treaties, the Chippewa retained their rights to hunt, fish and gather wild rice on these lands. Federal Judge James E. Doyle affirmed these rights in a landmark ruling on February 18, 1987. Doyle ruled that the tribe has the right to take as much fish and game on ceded lands as is necessary to ensure a modest living, as long as fish and game populations are not threatened by the exercise of this right. The ruling reaffirmed the understanding that Indian nations have the right to govern themselves and that hunting, fishing, and gathering rights were not, nor cannot be, granted. These are pre-existing—inalienable—rights.

Some non-Indians have protested the treaties. The protests have erupted into sometimes violent, racial confrontations. The protesters contend that the Chippewa's spear fishing and exercise of treaty rights will harm the region's fish and game populations. But the Chippewa themselves stand to lose more than the sportsman if the wildlife vanishes.

And evidence does not support the protesters' fear. For example, in spring 1987 the Chippewa speared 21,312 walleyes, compared with 839,000 taken by non-Indian anglers in the same area. Indians also speared just 196 muskies, compared with 39,500. And the Chippewa took only 1,826 deer in the 1987 season, while other hunters took more than 69,000 on the same lands.

Poaching poses a much greater threat to animal populations than the legal exercise of Indian treaty rights. For example, poachers annually kill between 30,000 and 50,000 deer according to the Department of Natural Resources.

Tribal Governments: An Overview

Indian nations mentioned in this unit are listed below. Those residing in Wisconsin are in bold.

Ojibwe and Chippewa are the same people. They include the:

- **Bad River**
- **Lac Courte Oreilles** (Luh Coo' duh ray')
- **Lac du Flambeau**
- **Mole Lake**
- **Red Cliff**
- **St. Croix**

Iroquois is the linguistic, cultural, and governmental umbrella for the :

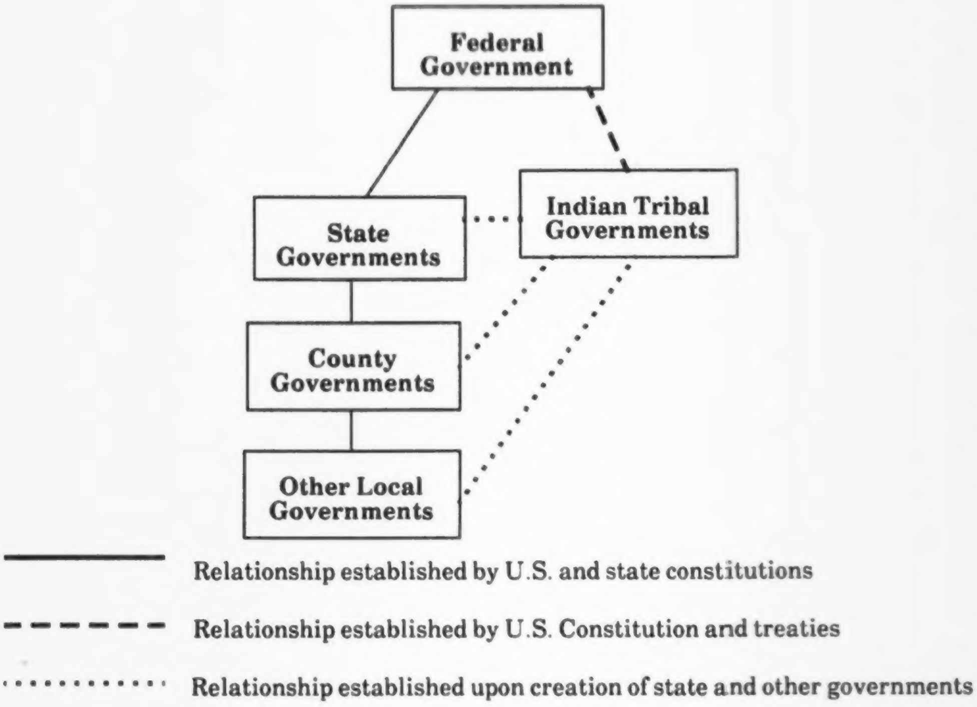
- Cayuga
- Mohawk
- **Oneida**
- Onondaga
- Seneca
- Tuscarora

Some other American Indian nations include the:

- Hopi
- **Menominee**
- Mohican
- Navajo
- Nez Perce
- **Potawatomi**
- Sioux
- **Stockbridge-Munsee**
- **Winnebago**

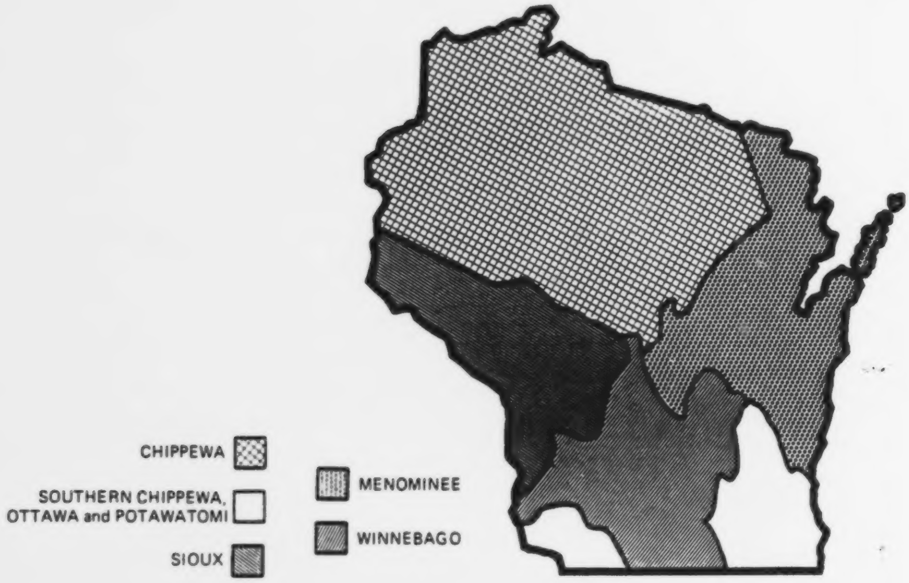
Relationship of Tribal Governments to Other Governments

This diagram refers to federally recognized Indian governments only. In some cases, tribes are recognized by state governments and their relationships to other governmental units are different.

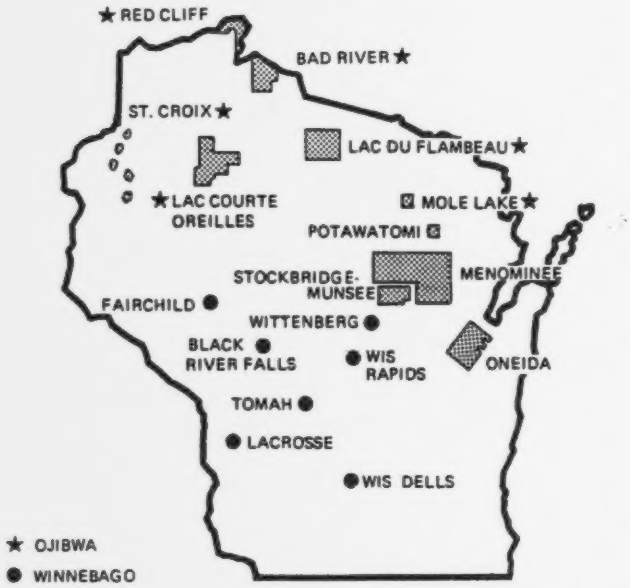

Federal Government
State Governments
Indian Tribal Governments
County Governments
Other Local Governments
Relationship established by U.S. and state constitutions
Relationship established by U.S. Constitution and treaties
Relationship established upon creation of state and other governments

Adapted from "American Indian Tribal Sovreignty," Madison (Wisconsin) Metropolitan School District.

Indian Lands in Wisconsin in the Early 1800s


CHIPPEWA
SOUTHERN CHIPPEWA, OTTAWA and POTAWATOMI
SIOUX
MENOMINEE
WINNEBAGO

Indian Lands in Wisconsin Today


RED CLIFF
BAD RIVER
ST. CROIX
LAC DU FLAMBEAU
LAC COURTE OREILLES
MOLE LAKE
POTAWATOMI
STOCKBRIDGE-MUNSEE
MENOMINEE
FAIRCHILD
WITTENBERG
BLACK RIVER FALLS
WIS RAPIDS
ONEIDA
TOMAH
LACROSSE
WIS DELLS
OJIBWA
WINNEBAGO

American Indian Tribal Governments

Lesson 2

Skills Focus

Communicating
Read for meaning

Group Participation
Discuss in large and small groups

Resources

"History of American Indian Tribal Governments" (reading and study guide included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Distribute the reading and study guide. Review both with the students.
2. Allow students the remainder of time to begin the assignment, which is due the next day.

Follow-up Lesson

Using the study guide, discuss the reading. Students should understand the growth and history of American Indian tribal governments and their relationships with the U.S. government.

History of American Indian Tribal Governments

Traditional Indian Governments

Before Europeans came to North America, hundreds of Indian nations lived throughout the continent. Each one differed in size, language, culture, and how its government operated.

A look at the governmental system of the Iroquois nations from the New York area and the system of the Great Lakes nations illustrates the differences.

In the Iroquois nations the council members were all men chosen by the women. Everything was owned and controlled by the women. When a man married, he moved into his wife's house. Children from marriages belonged to the mother's clan and took her clan symbol. Usually one woman in each clan, the clan mother, had the strongest voice as to who would serve on the council. A man could "earn" a position on the council by doing certain good deeds and being worthy of honor by the people. Much of this holds true today in Iroquois nations.

On the other hand, Great Lakes nations were ruled by a council of elders or chiefs. All people influenced the decision-making process, but the men or the council made the final decision. A man could become a chief in several ways. If his father was a chief and he was the eldest son, he automatically inherited the title upon his father's death. A man could also be appointed to chief if he earned the title through certain deeds. For example, if he were generous and kind and performed good deeds for others, the tribe could honor him by asking him to serve as a chief. However, if he earned his title through these means, the honor would not pass to his eldest son when he died.

Early Indian-European Relations

As Europeans arrived on America's shores in search of gold, fur, and finally land for their own peoples, conflicts flared between many Indian nations and the colonists.

Some Indian nations banded together to resist the European advances. For example, one of the first tribal confederacies was the Powhatan Confederacy in the Virginia area. The tribal governments had signed an agreement of friendship with the British, but the British population kept growing and wanted more land. The Powhatan Confederacy decided whether to fight the British or resolve the conflict peacefully.

In the Southwest, Spaniards led a rough campaign to enslave inhabitants. If a person did not obey, this person was exiled or killed. The Spanish forbade native people to speak their language, practice their dances, sing their songs, or practice their religion.

Indian governments changed as Indians discovered that, wherever they looked, other native people like themselves were being forced to give up their land to the whites. The beginning of the 1700s saw the complete disappearance of many Indian nations along the eastern seaboard as they were killed off by settlers. The settlers, however, could not intimidate the Iroquois Confederacy, a group of five major nations in the area of what is now New York—the Oneida, Seneca, Mohawk, Onondaga, and Cayuga—later joined by the Tuscarora from North Carolina.

Things became more complicated in the mid-1700s when the French, British, and colonists waged war against each other, each trying to gain the allegiance of groups like the Iroquois. Although dubbed the French and Indian War by the English, it was actually the *French* and *English* War, and a continuation of the Seven Years War, with Indians fighting

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Adapted from "American Indian Tribal Sovereignty," Madison (Wisconsin) Metropolitan School District, 1983.

on both sides. The French and British fought for domination of the land, while the American colonists sought independence from the British, which could not have been done without the Oneidas. The Oneidas fought on behalf of the colonies in the Revolutionary War. For their contribution, President Washington guaranteed that the Oneidas could keep their land in New York. Washington said that without the aid of Indians the war would have been lost.

U.S. Government Policies—Treaties, Warfare, and Removal

Although the colonists formed alliances with some Indian nations during the revolution, the basic "Indian policy" was one of warfare, that is fighting Indians for their land. When non-Indians won, they took most of the Indian land. Many native leaders waged war against the Americans, but all eventually lost. With Pontiac's defeat in 1795, the Ohio Valley region and the western plains were opened for settlement by non-Indians.

After the revolution the U.S. government renewed an intensive treaty-making policy. Until 1871, the U.S. government signed hundreds of treaties with Indian nations. But most treaties usually left Indians with no land, and some were forced to move west. Their earlier ways of life were destroyed and their years were spent trying to survive in unfriendly surroundings.

During the same period, as white landowners pressured the U.S. government, the previously informal *removal policy* was put into law. The Indian Removal Act, signed by President Andrew Jackson, forced Indians nations east of the Mississippi to move west of the river.

The cavalry or the army would move in, round up everyone and march them west, often giving them little or no time to gather their personal belongings. Thousands of Indian people died of exposure, exhaustion, and disease. The harsh conditions prompted the Cherokee to call their removal "The Trail of Tears." Some, however, hid in the mountains or swamps, refusing to go west; those who refused remain in their homelands today, like the Seminoles in Florida, Choctaw in Mississippi and Cherokee in North Carolina.

The Cherokee unsuccessfully challenged the removal policy. Two U.S. Supreme Court cases—Cherokee Nation v. Georgia and Worcester v. Georgia—sealed the fate of the Cherokee people but established the trust responsibility, a relationship between the United States and Indian tribes that requires the federal government to protect and help tribal governments.

For most Indian nations, however, traditional forms of government faltered under such adverse conditions. Imagine what it must be like to have your whole way of life destroyed, friends and family gone or dead, and property lost or stolen.

During the California gold rush of 1848, Indians living there were not removed—they were massacred. Laws established a bounty for every dead Indian. Many tribes were eliminated altogether, their history and knowledge lost forever. Over half of the Indians of California died during the gold rush.

Reservations—Exile and War

By 1854, most Indians from the plains area found themselves exiled to remote lands called reservations. Their government, tribal life and religious practices were threatened, and sometimes destroyed.

When federal representatives approached tribes with treaties seeking tribal lands, the government officials often did not know the tribes' social or governmental structures or their languages. Thus, the officials did not know with whom they should negotiate. They often chose and sometimes forced Indians to sign treaties—Indians who lacked tribal authority to do so.

In what is now Illinois and Wisconsin, the Sauk and the Fox Indians led by Black Hawk, for several years resisted being moved west of the Mississippi. When his people tried crossing the river in the summer of 1832, the militia was waiting on the other side. The militia opened fire, killing most of Black Hawk's people even after capturing Black Hawk.

Other Indian nations in Wisconsin such as the Winnebago and the Potawatomi were forced westward. The Winnebagoes were removed to Nebraska, and although the government eventually recognized many Winnebago as homesteaders, many avoided removal by simply hiding in the forests of central Wisconsin. They eventually won their battle with the U.S. government to remain in their homeland. Much later, some Potawatomi, exiled to Kansas in 1836, also returned to Wisconsin.

Other groups such as the Santee Sioux, Menominee, and Ojibwe were pushed to cede large amounts of land to make room for the westward-moving lumber interests and land speculators.

Meanwhile, several groups from the eastern United States, were forced west and ended up in Wisconsin. The Oneida (one of the Iroquois nations mentioned earlier), the Stockbridge-Munsee, and the Brothertown, from Massachusetts and New York, settled in eastern Wisconsin. Thus, the banishment of many different Indian peoples from many different areas of the East and Midwest considerably changed the Wisconsin map in the nineteenth century.

In 1876, the government raised a heavy hand against the Plains Indians. Army General George Custer led the troops. After killing many Indians, Custer's men met Crazy Horse. The Indian leader and his band of Plains Indians fought Custer in the Black Hills and wiped out all his men. The loss prompted the government to send many more troops and thus marked the Indians' last major effort at military resistance.

Any tribe not on a reservation by this time was forced to sign a treaty assigning them to one. One tribe refusing to sign, the Nez Perce tribe of Utah and Idaho and led by Chief Joseph, refused to be confined to a reservation and managed to outwit the pursuing army for several months, at one time passing by sleeping troops. But Chief Joseph and his people were eventually captured just short of the Canadian border and freedom.

Assimilation—U.S. Government Threatens Indian Traditions

Another government policy toward Indians was *assimilation*. Very often, treaties and agreements required Indian people to surrender their tribal ways: they should dress and act like white people, go to school, take up farming, and so forth. In 1875, for example, in exchange for homesteads in Wisconsin, the Winnebago had to abandon tribal relations and adopt habits and customs of non-Indians.

This policy, like others, was ultimately aimed at getting Indian land. By the late nineteenth century, the government nearly succeeded in abolishing Indian land-holding. Congress in 1887 decided to force Indians to be private landowners just as many non-Indian settlers were landowners. The lawmakers decided to abolish the reservation system and force Indians to follow a non-Indian way of life. Through the Dawes Act, designed to take land from the tribes and allot each Indian a certain number of acres, the government was trying to avoid the responsibility for its past treaties with the Indians. Once the reservations had been divided, the surplus land was sold to interested non-Indians. Because Indian people received poorer land—swamp or land with cut-over timber or poor soil—much of the more productive land is owned by non-Indians.

The year 1890 brought disaster to Indians at Wounded Knee, South Dakota. In the last half of the century, a man from the Paiute nation, Wovoka, started a spiritual movement called the Ghost Dance Religion, which appealed to Indians throughout the Great Plains. By dancing the Ghost Dance, many Indians believed that the nearly extinct bison would return to provide the Indians with their former source of food and clothing.

Inspired by this new movement (and despite the government's attempts to ban their participation in it), Indians began gathering at various places in South Dakota to dance. The military, fearful of these gatherings, got edgy and imagined a great uprising of the Plains Indians.

A Lakota man called Sitting Bull, who was wanted by the government, planned to attend a Ghost Dance. The army heard this and sent soldiers to capture him. On December 14, 1890, soldiers entered Sitting Bull's house. The camp sprang to life and fighting began. The murder of Sitting Bull, a great leader, greatly upset the his people.

The government then ordered the Lakota to surrender and hand over their weapons. Many reluctantly did. Other Lakota tribes gathered at the agency near Wounded Knee Creek later in the month. On December 29th, the army entered the camp. Although the cause is unknown, panic set in, and soldiers opened fire. Most of the 148 killed were old men, women and children from the Lakota band led by Big Foot. The Wounded Knee massacre was the final military defeat of the Plains Indians.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, most Indians were confined to reservations, their spirits broken, their traditional way of life destroyed, and a new way of life imposed on them. The changes forced their dependence on government handouts of food and clothing. The Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA), based in Washington, D.C., administered this impoverished way of life. The government controlled every aspect of Indian life, including land ownership, money distribution, schools, religion, and law enforcement. Many tribal governments were in disarray, although some remained strong. Some facets of their cultures survived through the efforts of traditional leaders in certain tribes, but essentially Indian tribes were conquered nations, treated like the British and French colonies in Africa, Asia, and South America.

Reorganization—A New Deal Fails

By the 1920s most members of Congress realized that their Indian policy failed and was, along with slavery, shameful. Partially motivated by guilt, congressional leaders agreed that change was necessary. Some minor reforms were made, and although well-intentioned, each still basically sought to assimilate Indians into our "melting pot" culture.

During World War I many Indians fought bravely although they were not required to enlist because they were not citizens. By 1924 Congress granted citizenship to American Indians. Some rejected the offer entirely and continue to recognize only their tribal citizenship. For example, some Mohawk Indians deny both United States and Canadian citizenship and travel to other parts of the world on their Iroquois passports.

In 1928, a very long and important report was made to Congress. Called the Meriam Report, it documented the loss of power that Indian nations had suffered and the failure of U.S. government policies. The report recommended an improvement in living conditions for Indians. But many of these suggestions were ignored during the Depression.

By 1934, a major act called the Indian Reorganization Act (IRA) was signed by Franklin Roosevelt. Part of the "New Deal" for Indians, the IRA promised great reform. Instead of disbanding Indian tribes, the IRA was geared to create democratic, majority-rule elections and form Indian governments "where there had been none." The authors of the IRA failed to recognize, however, that many Indian governments, through changed, continued to exist.

Through the IRA, new tribal constitutions were written and elected tribal governments were established on many reservations. Although intended to give Indians control over their reservations, the structures of the new tribal governments, such as majority rule and parliamentary procedure, were very unlike traditional Indian ways of decisionmaking. Furthermore, many native people realized that two parts of the IRA took the meat out of the reform.

First, the new constitutions and governments required approval from the Secretary of the Interior. Second, all the decisions made by the new governmental body could be vetoed by the Secretary of the Interior. The restrictions hardly gave tribes self-determination or recognized their sovereignty.

To entice involvement, however, the government promised massive economic aid to Indian tribes that voted to organize under IRA. Sixty-seven percent of the tribes voted for it and 172 tribes adopted new governments.

The approval process had its faults. On the day the Hopi tribe voted, 21 percent endorsed the IRA, and 12 percent rejected it. But 67 percent of the Hopi people did not vote at all. Washington wrongly interpreted this vote as a "yes" for the IRA. Ironically, after ten centuries of having their own traditional form of decentralized self-government, the Hopis joined other American Indians to be governed by a central, authoritative council empowered to deal with any agency under United States supervision. However, some Indians view these elective governments as "puppet governments" because they often do not respond to the wishes of the people.

Reorganization in Wisconsin

Four Ojibwe reservations had been established by the Treaty of 1854—Red Cliff, Lac du Flambeau, Lac Courte Oreilles, and Bad River. And by the 1930s, the Mole Lake Ojibwe were awarded a 1,750-acre reservation (about two and a half square miles). While a provision in the IRA established this and other newly formed reservations, the act robbed the Indians of self-determination. The St. Croix Ojibwe, called the Lost Band of St. Croix because they never signed the 1854 treaty, were awarded a reservation roughly the same size as the Mole Lake band but in scattered parcels around their settlements. The Oneida regained some land taken under the Dawes Act and the Stockbridge-Munsee also got land through the IRA.

Following IRA regulations, all Wisconsin tribes, except the Menominee and the Winnebago, drafted constitutions during the 1930s. The Menominee, like the Navajo in Arizona and others that rejected the IRA, had already built a system of elected officers to approve contracts with lumbering companies. This elective system continues to run tribal business.

While many tribes rejected the IRA, the Winnebago did not vote primarily because the government did not recognize them as a tribe during this era. They investigated the IRA but did not vote either for or against it. Basically, they feared an endorsement of any new plan would be used against them and would prevent them from collecting money from previous land negotiations.

Not until 1963, did the U.S. government officially recognize the Winnebago. Today, they own approximately six square miles of land in ten different counties. Although scattered throughout the central section of Wisconsin, the Winnebago have strongly maintained their cultural traditions and their native language.

Reform Falls Short

Did the Indian Reorganization Act drastically change Indian nations? Vine Deloria, a well-known Sioux writer and respected attorney, writes:

> The basic Indian political pattern has endured despite efforts by the federal government to change it. The people still follow a man simply because he produces.

> The only difference between two centuries ago and today is that now the Bureau of Indian Affairs defines certain ground rules by which leaders can be changed. These rules are called tribal elections. Otherwise, leadership patterns have not changed at all.
>
> Today a man holds his chairmanship as long as he produces, or at least appears to produce, for his tribe. Without making substantial progress or having the ability to present a fighting image, a man's term in tribal office is short and severe. Demands are great. Some tribes have never had an incumbent re-elected because tribal goals far surpass any conceivable performance. A few tribes have had strong men dominate tribal affairs for long periods of time because of their tremendous following with the people.
>
> Unlike hunting days, production today depends upon the ability to gain concessions from governmental agencies. Some tribes demand more from the bureau than others (Deloria, 1969, pp. 205-206).

Despite the new tribal governments' forced compliance with the Indian Reorganization Act, the act did help Indian nations control tribal lands in common, if possible.

The IRA also slowed the flow of reservation land from Indians to non-Indians. From 1887 when the Dawes Allotment Act took effect to 1934, Indian land shrunk by nearly two-thirds, from 138 million acres to 50 million acres. The IRA called for money to prevent reservation land from being sold to non-Indians.

After 1934, tribes began electing new governments as stipulated by the IRA. Some tribal members viewed the governments as an institution introduced by the federal government. This perspective resembled a city person's view of the police station or the city government: an aspect foreign to daily life. Older tribal members, accustomed to personally approaching the Bureau of Indian Affairs, thought these new tribal governments interfered with the more personal approach. Many elected to tribal councils won simply because they knew best how to deal with the BIA.

These new governmental structures reflected a belief that majority rule, representative bodies, and secret ballots are somehow absolute values that any good government should possess. Yet in many tribes, a majority-rule process replaced a consensus decision-making process. Many tribes customarily allowed any interested member to join the decision-making instead of leaving the work to representatives. Although the IRA's goals to establish "democratic" tribal governments may have been well-intentioned, the act ignored traditional Indian systems of decision-making, sometimes resulting in disputes between the traditional and the elective tribal leaders.

The new governments basically had little power for two reasons. First, the Secretary of the Interior held veto power over tribal decisions, and second, many daily decisions about roads, education, and relief stayed in the hands of BIA administrators. Most of the important information about the reservations remained in BIA files. When a corporation, for example, wanted to lease mining rights or oil rights on a reservation, it went to the BIA in Washington, not to the tribal leaders. In fact, some considered tribal councils only as advisory groups to the Bureau. BIA officials set up council meetings to get the tribe's approval.

Aided by a shifting federal policy, however, Indians have gained influence over new policies and laws affecting tribes. The Indian Self-Determiniation and Education Assistance Act of 1975 (PL 93-638), for example, helped Indians provide their own services and gain educational opportunities.

Indian tribal governments today increasingly assert themselves. They are challenging state laws and county and town ordinances that violate or restrict their treaty rights. They are protesting the exploitation of their resources by corporations and resisting those corporate efforts to betray their people. Both government and private institutions, have discovered that the tribal government, not the Bureau of Indian Affairs, must be listened to, dealt with, and respected.

References

Deloria, Vine, Jr. *Custer Died for Your Sins: An Indian Manifest.* New York: Macmillan, 1980.

Spicer, Edward H., ed. *A Short History of the Indians of the United States.* Melbourne, FL: Robert E. Krieger Publishing Co., 1983.

American Indian Tribal Government History

1. Briefly describe the different governmental systems used by the Iroquois and the Great Lakes nations.

2. Describe some of the pressures placed on Indian nations by the Europeans.

3. Briefly describe the following:

    a. Policy of Warfare

    b. Treaty Making Policy

    c. The Indian Removal Act

    d. The Ghost Dance Religion

    e. Congressional Vote of 1924

    f. Meriam Report 1928

    g. Indian Reorganization Act 1934

4. Summarize the following:

    a. U.S. government treatment of the tribes

    b. The power and effectiveness of the current tribal government structure in relationship to the U.S. government

    c. The role of women in tribal government

American Indian Tribal Governments

Lesson 3

Skills Focus

Communication
Read for meaning

Resource

"American Indian Concerns" (reading included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Distribute the reading and study guide. Review both with the students.
2. Allow students the remainder of the class period to begin the assignment, or assign the task for homework.

American Indian Concerns

Education

When the reservations were set aside in the 1800s, many treaties included promises to provide education in exchange for Indians giving up their land.

Until the 1950s when the government established its relocation policy that resulted in the movement of Indian people to cities, most native people still lived on reservations, and many were educated either by missionary teachers or at a boarding or day school established by the BIA. The boarding schools—often far from a student's home and often like military camps—earned a bad reputation. The schools pushed students to abandon their culture, give up their own language for English, and feel ashamed because of their ancestry and heritage. Two students described their experience:

> Education . . .it has separated you from your family, your heritage . . . . What more sickening life do you want? So God help me I didn't ask for this. No, I didn't.
>
> As I lay on the blanket, I thought about my school days and all I had learned. I could talk like a gentleman, read, write, and cipher. I could name all the states of the Union, with the capitals, repeat the names of all the books of the Bible, 100 verses of Scripture, sing more than two dozen hymns, debate, shout football yells, swing my partners, and tell dirty stories by the hour. It was important that I had learned how to get along with the white man. But my experience had taught me that I had a Hopi Spirit Guide, whom I must follow if I wish to live and I want to become a real Hopi again, to sing the old songs and to feel free to make love without the fear of sin or rawhide (Cahn, 1969, pp. 44-45).

Today, over 55 percent of all Indians live in cities, away from reservations. Two hundred federal schools serve about 50,000 students—only 15 percent of the total student population. About half of all Indian students attend schools in cities.

Tribal governments seek to develop schools that will help preserve the Indian culture. Although over 300 native languages still exist in the United States, in many tribes few speakers are left to teach their languages to young people. Training these speakers and bringing them into schools near reservations requires all too scarce federal funds. Also, most textbooks used in the schools contain little information on Indian history, misrepresent the Indian point of view, or ignore Indian history altogether.

The number of Indians attending college has increased dramatically—from 1,400 in 1963 to more than 30,000 today. And many community colleges, approximately 30 funded by the BIA, offer Indians education beyond high school.

Control of Schools

Another movement in Indian education today seeks to shift control of school districts entirely to Indian people. Most reservations still depend on schools controlled by non-Indians. Tribal governments are trying to improve learning opportunities for Indian students in public schools. In some instances, schools fail to serve their Indian students, prompting the local

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Adapted from "American Indian Tribal Sovreignty," Madison (Wisconsin) Metropolitan School District, 1983.

Indian community to establish its own school district and school board. In Wisconsin, the Oneida, Lac Courte Oreilles, and Menominee tribes run fine schools for the children of those reservation areas.

Innovative Indian-controlled schools have also emerged in urban areas, such as Milwaukee and Minneapolis. In the 1950s with the first large Indian migration to cities, BIA officials assumed that Indian culture would be absorbed by the dominant white culture. However, the opposite has happened. Urban Indians indicate that feasts, pow-wows, and other social gatherings are ongoing expressions of their values and spirituality. Therefore, cities like Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Los Angeles, and Chicago have Indian centers for social and educational activities.

Despite recent gains, problems still persist. Starting and maintaining a school is an expensive project, while funds are short. Indian teachers and administrators are hard to find, although the number is slowly increasing. In many locations, there are so few Indians that their voice often is not heard in the decision-making process.

Jurisdiction

"Who has jurisdiction here?" Indian groups often face this question. As Thurman Trosberg, of the Salish-Kootenai Confederated Tribes, said, "The question of jurisdiction, the right of the tribe to decide what shall be done, and to govern its resources and the people, is absolutely bedrock. It's the basis upon which a tribe exists. If we don't have jurisdiction, the power to control the use of and manage our assets, we have nothing." (Costo and Henry, 1977, p. 175).

The question is particularly important today, now that major mineral, oil, and water resources are being discovered on Indian reservations across the country. To answer this and other questions, Indian tribes have joined together. For example, a national organization of 37 Indian nations, which produce oil, called the Council on Energy Resource Tribes, discusses problems and works toward their solutions.

Here in Wisconsin, a rich deposit of copper and zinc was discovered in 1976 on and around the Mole Lake Chippewa Reservation. While non-Indian landowners in the area jumped at a chance to make money by letting a mining company explore their land, the Chippewa have been arguing and debating the question for a long time. They are weighing the vision of potential wealth against the impact of mining on the natural resources. This tough and important decision could determine the tribe's entire future.

Jurisdiction—The Courts Decide

Another jurisdictional conflict involves tribal governments' authority over non-Indian landowners who live on their reservations. Currently, these landowners may not participate in government affairs. They cannot vote for tribal officers and may not serve on tribal juries.

That situation has led to numerous legal battles. A recent court ruling tried to clarify the unique relationship.

> His [the non-Indian's] subjection to taxation and other powers of government without any right to participate in that government, appears to collide with fundamental notions of democracy and due process of law. The Supreme Court has resolved the problem by applying two basic principles: Indian tribes have authority over their reservations, and non-Indians have no right to membership in Indian tribes .
>
> If tribal government is opened to non-Indian participation, it will mean the end of Indian tribes as tribes. Their identity will be lost and the political relationship

> between the United States and the political entities which have made treaties and agreements with it will be destroyed. Such a proposal is actually one to end Indian tribes and their existence.
>
> There is no constitutional right for a non-Indian to be a member of an Indian tribe. That Indian tribes have authority over their reservations and are entitled to rights, privileges and immunities not granted to non-Indians is a product of their original occupancy of this continent and the commitments made by the United States to them on that account. (Costo and Henry, 1977, pp. 177-178).

In other words, the primary legal relationship between most Indian tribal governments and the United States falls between the tribe and a *federal* agency, not a *state* one. This legal relationship is often hard for non-Indians, and especially state governments, to comprehend. Although the Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources (DNR) challenged Wisconsin Indians for fishing or hunting "out of season" in a *jurisdictional dispute*, the courts have decided if the original treaty guarantees hunting and fishing rights, it overrides state law.

Treaties and Termination

In 1962, a Menominee was arrested for hunting out of season. The arrest took place during a period when the Menominee Tribe was *terminated*, that is, lost the recognition of the federal government. In the 1950s the U.S. Congress decided to terminate or dissolve as many reservations as possible and the Menominee reservation was one of fifty-two reservations in the country that was forced to give up its reservation status. (It was to become a county instead.) This meant that the Menominees were without tribal status for ten years and lost many of their guarantees under the Wolf River Treaty of 1854 which gave them their original reservation land.

The Menominee worked hard to overturn their termination and in 1973 regained reservation status. The case eventually went to the Supreme Court, which in 1967 ruled that termination did not diminish the Menominees' hunting rights. Therefore, these rights are still valid. This ruling has prompted the Menominees' attorneys to claim that Wisconsin illegally imposed taxes on the tribe during their termination period.

In both Wisconsin and Michigan, treaty fishing rights on Lake Superior have been a heated issue for the Chippewa. The Chippewa won the right to fish all year but now face opposition, hostility, and sometimes violence from the other fishermen.

The Winnebago, who lacked a treaty granting them a reservation where they could hunt and fish encountered a different problem. Their religion requires venison, deer meat, at ritual feasts. The Winnebago negotiated with the DNR and were able to get legislation passed in 1978 allowing them to hunt deer out of season. In exchange, they agreed to notify the DNR 24 hours before their hunt, the methods they would use, and the number of deer they intended to kill. In exchange, they agreed to notify the DNR 24 hours before their hunt, the methods they would use, and the number, usually small, of deer they intended to kill.

Economic Planning

A major job facing many tribal governments is economic planning. They must ensure that tribal members have job satisfaction and freedom to continue their way of life. They also need to protect what little land they have from exploitation—too much mining, damming or the removal of vital resources.

Most reservations established for Indians, are found in environmentally harsh areas spurned by white settlers. However, with minerals and other resources being found, Indian land is now in great demand. While the BIA is responsible to help Indians protect their land, the agency has often proceeded to lease mineral and oil rights at very low prices—oftentimes without tribal input.

On the Menominee Reservation, where the primary resource is timber, the BIA was obliged to enforce a "sustained yield" policy, meaning that the trees would be cut little by little, so that the Menominee would be guaranteed a continual economic gain. Because the BIA and the United States Forest Service failed to enforce the sustained yield policy, the Menominee filed a lawsuit in 1951 and won over $7 million dollars in damages from the government.

Dam Projects Flood Reservations

At Lac Courte Oreilles, the Ojibwe people have tried to recover 6,000 acres of their reservation flooded since 1921. The dam, built by the Northern States Power company, created a large lake that covered Indian homes, graves, forests, and wild rice beds. In 1971, when the 50 year lease of the company expired, the Lac Courte Oreilles nation attempted to reclaim their land. But their action was not supported by the courts and both the Chippewa Flowage and the reservation land remain flooded.

Other tribal governments have also lost major resources from their reservations. Three affiliated tribes in North Dakota fought to save their farmlands from being flooded by the Garrison Dam project. The six-year fight failed. The project flooded one-fourth of the reservation—the tribe's most fertile bottomlands and the reservation's prime economic resource. The unflooded lands that remained had little water and temperatures that reach 40 below zero. The project also split the reservation into five separate sections.

George Gillette, Chairman of the Fort Berthold Indian Tribal Business Council, wept over the sale of 155,000 acres of reservation land for the 1948 Garrison Lake and Reservoir Project. He said, "The members . . . sign this contract with heavy hearts." (Cahn, 1969, p. 70).

After the opening of Garrison Dam 29 years ago, the reservation remains in emotional shock. To maintain old ties, tribal members travel up to 120 miles on weekends to attend reservation pow-wows. Before the dam project, yearly welfare payments never exceeded $5,000. But soon after its completion, these payments soared to $573,000 a year, and unemployment skyrocketed.

Legal Settlements

Sioux living in the Black Hills claimed that their sacred hunting grounds were stolen from them in the 1870s. The legal battle for the Black Hills has been in the courts since the 1920s.

By 1979, the U.S. Court of Claims awarded the Sioux $104 million for the seven and a half million acres they lost. After the money was awarded, however, a group of Sioux leaders claimed they deserved not only the money but the Black Hills as well. And the $104 million a record-breaking settlement, would be a penalty for all the people who had trespassed on the Hills.

As with most legal settlements, if the tribe accepts the money they lose any further claim to the land, causing division in many tribes. The Klamath Tribe, which, like the Menominee, was terminated in the 1950s, agreed to accept monetary awards for the loss of their land. As a result, they remain without a resource base to continue their life as a community.

A number of these settlements date back to 1946 when an Indian Claims Commission was established to encourage tribes to pursue their claims against the government. However, the commission allowed only money settlements. Tribal leaders say that this commission contradicts the U.S. government's treaty responsibilities to the tribes.

References

Cahn, Edgar S., ed. *Our Brother's Keeper: The Indian in White America.* Chicago: World Publishing, 1970.

Costo, Rupert and Jeannette Henry. *Indian Treaties: Two Centuries of Dishonor.* San Francisco: Indian Historian Press, 1977.

Lesson 4

Skills Focus

Communicating
Read for meaning

Suggested Procedure

1. Inform students that they will examine a controversial issue surrounding treaty rights. The issue has received nationwide attention. Ask the students what they know about the issue, and clarify any misconceptions.
2. Distribute the reading. Instruct the class to read the article and note the major arguments and supporting details for each side. The students should come up with two or three arguments for each side. Be aware that some arguments are based on facts and others are not. Also, some arguments fail to mention all the facts surrounding the issue. Caution students to look for arguments that can be fully supported. For example, in the argument against treaty rights, the article says, in effect, Indians were granted special rights. The courts, however, have ruled that the rights were not granted but are inalienable—pre-existing—rights that Indians retained and had never given up. The same side also fails to mention that Indians are concerned about the environment as much as the DNR and have worked with the state agency to develop self-imposed limits for hunting and fishing that will sustain the resources.
3. Have students research all the issues so that they can defend their responses with sound data.
4. Allow students the remainder of time to complete the assignment, which is due the next day.

American Indian Treaty Rights

The following article is derived from these sources:

> *The Christian Science Monitor*, September 8, 1987; *The Sheboygan Press*, September 14, 1987; *USA Today, Today's Debate*, September 14, 1987; *The Wausau Daily Herald*, November 22, 1987.

Position Statement: The United States should respect the treaties made with American Indian governments, specifically their right to hunt and fish on non-reservation lands.

For Treaty Rights

Those who oppose honoring treaty rights argue that Indians fishing and hunting off the reservation will devastate the natural resources of the area. Many of these areas, they argue, depend on these resources to attract tourists, a main source of income.

But the economic decline in these areas cannot be blamed on the fishing and hunting rights of American Indians. The cause for this problem rests on other factors, including lower land values, farm foreclosures, and rising property taxes. In addition, the logging industry, previously a big employer in these areas, has become more automated, meaning a loss of jobs or lower wages for its workers. New resort areas in other parts of the country, which advertise extensively for the vacationer's dollar, woo the tourists. At the same time, resorts in treaty areas need expensive remodeling and cannot afford to compete with newer and more modern facilities. As a result of these and other factors, residents have experienced a significant drop in their incomes and standard of living.

The impact of American Indians fishing and hunting on non-reservation lands is minimal. In 1986, Chippewa hunters in northern Wisconsin harvested only 3 percent or 2,145 of the total 69,846 deer taken in that area. The statistics for the fish taken are even lower. In 1987, American Indians took only 2 percent of the walleye harvest, and less than one-half of 1 percent of the muskie harvest.

Another reason to honor treaty rights is that the U.S. government must maintain its promise to American Indians. Through the treaties, the U.S. government obtained large political, economic, and territorial gains—over 2 billion acres of land. In these agreements tribes retained their hunting and fishing rights. Non-Indians still enjoy the advantages gained from these treaties and would not consider abolishing them at the request of American Indians. The same holds true for the reverse. The government promised American Indians they could continue their ways "as long as the sun shall shine on the American flag." The U.S. Constitution states that these treaties are "the supreme law of the land," and we must honor them.

Against Treaty Rights

The issue here is preservation of natural resources. If we continue to allow the Indians, hunting and fishing rights off reservation lands without enforcing the same rules that apply to other citizens, the fish and deer populations will be damaged beyond repair. This point is well illustrated in the case of fish. American Indians say they net or spear a small percent of the fish taken over an entire season. This may be true, however, it is not the number of fish they take that will harm the environment, but the time of the year they are taken. The Department of Natural Resources understands this and restricted fishing to a particular season. Tribes are granted fishing rights in the early spring during spawning, when non-Indians are barred from fishing. Fish taken at this time cannot lay their eggs, and future populations are depleted. There are tribal leaders who follow the rules, but other tribal members may abuse these privileges.

On the legal side, time has altered the treaties' validity. Treaties are made with foreign countries. While the treaties were appropriate when signed and the tribes should have gotten more from them, Indians now enjoy United States citizenship, and they must abide by the law of the land. Some even say that breaking the treaties would be unconstitutional. Yet, the Supreme Court ruled in 1886 that when an Indian treaty and a legislative act conflict "the one last in date will control the other." Therefore, since treaties are equivalent to legislative acts, they can be revoked or revised by Congress.

Finally, this country was founded on the principle of equal justice for all. It is not racist to argue against the granting of special privileges to any group of citizens, especially when those privileges threaten the environment belonging to all citizens. The conditions in the world have changed greatly since the treaties were signed, and we need to alter these treaties to reflect these changes.

American Indian Tribal Governments

Lesson 5

Skills Focus

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups.
Listen to and be considerate of people's points of view.

Social Judgment
Arrive at reasoned, ethical decisions and evaluate their social consequences

Suggested Procedure

1. Allow about ten minutes to discuss the major arguments from the preceding lesson so the class understands them.
2. Inform students that in groups of three to five they will prepare a resolution to this issue that they think will resolve the problem fairly and justly to all concerned.
3. Distribute and discuss the handout Format Instructions for Writing Resolutions, which explains the various parts of a resolution.
4. Distribute the forms to the groups. Allow them the remainder of time to finish.

Follow-up Lesson

Have each group present its resolution to the class and explain its reason. Allow time for questions, reactions, and constructive criticism after each presentation. After each group has presented its resolution, conduct a vote to determine which resolution is the most popular and most effective. The resolutions could also be judged by teachers, administrators, parents, politicians, or other community members invited to rate the presentations and select the most workable one.

Guidelines for Writing Resolutions

Intent

- This is the "Whereas" section. Remember that whereas means "because."
- This section lists reasons for the attitudes and opinions you will express in the letter of the resolution. Each reason starts with "Whereas" and ends with a semi-colon and an "and" except the last, which ends with a period.
- Some reasons you may want to express are listed below:
  - —Examples and evidence of how serious the problem is.
  - —Some of the causes of the problem.
- Be concise and write small if necessary. You are limited by the amount of space available.

Letter

- This section states the position you are taking.
- The attitude or opinion may state one of two things.
  - —The status quo (present condition) is just fine. In fact, the situation should not change.
  - —The people, or government, should do ______________ to change the status quo.

Sample Resolution

Issue: **The 55-mph Speed Limit**
Position: **The 55-mph speed limit should be reinstated.**

Intent of the resolution

1. Whereas the 55-mph speed limit saves lives; and
2. Whereas the limit reduces spinal cord injuries; and
3. Whereas the limit conserves gasoline; and
4. Whereas states need to enforce the limit.

Letter of the resolution

Therefore, be it resolved:

1. That this group believes that the
2. 55-mph speed limit should become law in all states.
3. The United States Congress should pass laws
4. requiring that all states strictly enforce a 55-mph
5. speed limit. Congress should penalize states that do not
6. strictly enforce the limit with the
7. loss of all federal highway funding. Congress should
8. reward states that do comply by giving them monies
9. lost by the states in noncompliance.

Resolution

Intent

1. **Whereas** ______________________________; **and**

2. **Whereas** ______________________________; **and**

3. **Whereas** ______________________________; **and**

4. **Whereas** ______________________________

Letter

Therefore, be it resolved:

1. ______________________________

2. ______________________________

3. ______________________________

4. ______________________________

5. ______________________________

6. ______________________________

7. ______________________________

8. ______________________________

9. ______________________________

10. ______________________________

11. ______________________________

12. ______________________________

Activities: Function of Government

4

Interview With a Legislator
Small-Town Government
Access to Government
Mock Legislature

How a Bill Becomes a Law

This activity provides an opportunity to learn about the legislative process through both formal and conversational terms. State Representative Calvin Potter, interviewed in 1985, describes the behind-the-scenes view of the process. Students can compare his view with the description taken from the *Wisconsin Blue Book*.

Lesson 1

Skills Focus

Communicating
Read for meaning

Resources

"Interview with Representative Calvin Potter" (reading and study guide included), "How a Bill Becomes a Law in Wisconsin" (reading and study guide included), *Wisconsin Blue Book*

Suggested Procedure

1. Introduce the readings and study guides to the class. Have students begin with the Calvin Potter reading. Check each reading for vocabulary words that the students may not understand. You might want to review the following words and phrases.

   The *Blue Book* list might include

   drafting
   fiscal notes
   appropriation
   exemptions
   concurrence
   simple resolution
   joint resolution
   to calendar
   engrossment
   reading
   unanimous consent
   pocket veto
   overrule

   The Calvin Potter list might include

   constituent
   proliferation
   binding arbitration
   expeditiously
   caucus
   codified
   cognizant
   mandate
   impetus
   forum
   populous
   administrative rule

2. Give students the rest of the class period to begin the assignment, which is due the next day.

Follow-up Lesson

Discuss the two readings, noting similarities and differences. To further help students understand the legislative process, have them, in groups of three or four, construct a flow chart of how a bill becomes a law. Using the groups' ideas, construct the class version of how a bill becomes a law. It might be interesting to compare versions from other classes and share them with your students.

Interview with Representative Calvin Potter

Calvin Potter, a native of Sheboygan, has represented the 26th Assembly District since 1974. He is a former teacher and chairs the Committee on Primary and Secondary Education.

Interviewer: From the many important and pressing issues, how do legislators decide which ones to consider?

Potter: Most individual legislators do not initiate legislation, although there is a common feeling that we somehow create the agenda. The majority of legislation comes from constituent sources. By **constituent** sources we mean complaints and concerns of groups or individuals. Oftentimes, if a bill addresses a controversial issue, a legislator may not want his or her name listed as the job author and will indicate that it is submitted by request of the Wisconsin Education Association, Wisconsin School Boards, or some other constituent group.

Interviewer: So the legislators are generally in the position of responding to constituent requests?

Potter: Generally, yes. But there are many ideas that are popular enough for people to jump on the bandwagon, and then they will use a legislator's name because legislators are the only ones who can actually introduce a bill. Some are the results of actions that might have been introduced in another state or issues society picked up as an ill. Remember the Girl Scout cookie episode?

Interviewer: Sure.

Potter: Well, there was a **proliferation** of bills after that. Oftentimes, if an issue captures the attention of the news media, you will see bills introduced by legislators.

Interviewer: Can you define what you mean by a sufficiently popular issue?

Potter: Welfare reform might be perceived as such an issue. People become concerned and an issue takes off with the common complaints among the populous. Wisconsin is a high welfare benefit state, so some legislators say we've got to do something to decrease payments and so on. Education is another example. We have had complaints that students were not doing their jobs. They weren't getting the basics. And so you saw competency-based testing in the forefront several years ago. One of the issues now is from the tourist industry. They say, "We've just got to have a greater flexibility in the school year for a longer tourist season." The committees on tourism and education are looking at four or five different bills to start school after Labor Day.

Interviewer: Where do you think the emphasis for that issue came from?

Potter: Some of it is the perception by the tourist industry that they suffer a downturn in their trade later in the summer due to school starting unnecessarily early. Families can't travel any distance over the Labor Day weekend, and businesses lack manpower because the kids go back to college. I don't know of any studies that say this is the sole problem.

Interviewer: Once an issue is identified, why do some bills get a favorable committee reaction while others don't?

Potter: Basically, it has to do with where they came from. If a bill is supported by a minority of opinions, it is probably not going to get sufficient support in the committee. Most bills get a committee hearing, where you find out how the support lines up. And if you find out the minority is the one proposing it most legislators, including the chairperson, are not too eager to report that bill out of committee.

Interviewer: Are those public hearings?

Potter: Yes. But, it's not required to have a public hearing. The bill can be voted upon in a committee without a public hearing, but that's not standard procedure. The person who is in the majority party will get more favorable consideration than somebody who is a minority party member, because the chairperson and the whole hierarchy of the legislative structure are determined by party politics. If there are two bills that are related, the bill from the majority party often will be given preference and fast-track consideration.

Interviewer: What does "fast-track" mean?

Potter: The time between introducing the bill and the hearing is shorter, the time between the hearing and executive session vote at the committee is shorter. So, you're talking about weeks rather than months.

Interviewer: At what stage in the process do letters from constituents and those kinds of efforts become important?

Potter: Letters usually come in when the bill is going to be up for floor debate. They probably have a greater impact at that time than they would in the committee stage because the membership of each committee is small, and thus, most legislators are not involved in a bill's early consideration. The committee members are very dependent upon the expert testimony given before them in a hearing. There are some groups that have more power than others. Over the years, teacher unions have grown substantially in power and numbers. They've become involved in education policy-making to a greater extent than before and it's paid off [for them]. **Binding arbitration** is a good example. There were completely different viewpoints on that piece of legislation. The teachers have generally won because of numbers and the organization they put together politically. Groups are very important in this whole process.

The time of the bill's introduction is also important because, as we get later and later into a session, it becomes more difficult for a bill to go before two houses. So a bill that is numbered 85 out of a 2,000-bill agenda, which is what you handle in a two-year period, is more likely to get through expeditiously than one that is numbered 1,425. So that has a bearing. Those who are interested in passing legislation must know that it is a lengthy process, a process that can take a longer period of time if

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there is opposition. In order to work out varying viewpoints and negotiate compromises, they'd better start to get their acts together early in a two-year legislative session.

Interviewer: Is it luck to have your bill number 85 instead of 1,425?

Potter: No, and those who have been here before know that. In the two-year legislative session, the fall of the second year is the election period. Those of us who are running for re-election, even though we are committed to that activity back home, are still employed as legislators. Often we expect to be re-elected if we're doing our jobs right, so at the beginning of September we prepare our bills for introduction in January. Newly elected legislators will not get to our staff of bill drafters until November or December, and their bills will be way down on the list. So experience and length of time in the legislature are important factors. I have bills [numbered] five, six, seven, and eight because I was ready to go out of the starting gate early.

Interviewer: When can you first hand in drafts for new legislation?

Potter: The legislature reconvenes for its two-year session the first Tuesday in January, so that is the date when those bills can be submitted. But they can be drafted as early as several months prior to that.

Interviewer: So you would have it ready on the opening day of the session?

Potter: That's right. It's sort of like kids preparing for the first day of school. Some do a better job than others, and those who do are better prepared to get off to a good start.

Interviewer: So doing well requires a knowledge of the system.

Potter: Yes. The bills that generally get out of committee are those that have a lot of friends, particularly in the majority **caucus**.

Interviewer: And just because one time isn't a good time for a bill doesn't mean that another time isn't?

Potter: Right. Of the 2,000 bills maybe only 300 to 400 get to the floor. The rest are killed in committee, not necessarily because they were wrong. They were not complete enough in their preparation to be passed, or they weren't well-written, or the interest groups weren't lined up. As a result, the author will have to go back to the drawing board and resubmit the bill. Many bills take two sessions before they are passed into law.

Interviewer: So it's a good idea to go back again if you really believe in an issue and think you've got a good one?

Potter: You learn how to touch base with your potential problems. In other words, if you introduce a bill that you perceive teachers and school board members might not like, it is a good idea, prior to introducing it to the committee, to sit down and expose what you're going to do and see what their reaction is. Then you can be ready either through testimony or revisions in the bill to combat potential opponents. You learn to do that. Having a public hearing with minimal opposition can speed a bill along, as you can always correct a few little things. But if you have large holes in your idea, you are going to have a very difficult time convincing the committee members who will want to simply move on to another subject, another bill. They will most likely kill the bill and come back to it next session.

Interviewer: Is that how a bill is usually killed?

Potter: A bill will usually have a vote in committee, although it doesn't have to be considered if the chairperson perceives the bill to be of very poor quality or lacking in support. But in most cases, I would say in 99 percent of the cases in my committee, we will put the bill up for a vote. And if you have a majority vote it is then forwarded to the floor. If it is a tie vote or the majority votes to kill the bill, it is dead for this session. It will no longer be before the committee or the legislature.

Interviewer: How many hearings does a bill receive before it comes up for a vote?

Potter: In some cases, I will hold a vote immediately after the committee hearing because the bill has been really fine-tuned before it was introduced, and there is no apparent opposition.

Interviewer: That's a bill which is highly organized, well-written, on-time?

Potter: Correct.

Interviewer: Playing by the rules.

Potter: That's right.

Interviewer: What about the party agenda? Does the party have a list of things it's trying to push?

Potter: The party does have caucuses and conventions where resolutions are debated, **codified**, and forwarded to the legislature.

Interviewer: To whom in the legislature?

Potter: To the members of that particular party. Parties tend to be the major source of organization. The speakers, the majority membership of the committees, and all the chairpersons are members of the majority party. You will work for the survival of the majority. If you lose the majority, you lose your committee chairmanship, you lose the speakership, you lose the whole ball of wax as far as calling the shots. And as a result, the survival instinct is very strong. We spend time in party caucuses talking about what the opposing party might be doing and what we ought to be doing.

Interviewer: You want to introduce good legislation through your party?

Potter: Absolutely. Or it might be that there is some legislation being introduced by members of the opposing party that is getting a lot of publicity. We caucus to figure out how to handle it.

Interviewer: How are issues identified for the legislators? Who does the research and how is it done?

Potter: There are non-partisan information sources and staff. The Fiscal Bureau is responsible particularly to the finance committee. They will thoroughly review the financial implications of a bill, particularly the budget bill. They are non-partisan, objective, and [they] provide analysis. When they sit in the finance committee, the legislators look at the papers that are provided by the Fiscal Bureau in a very respectful manner. We also have the Reference Bureau, which drafts our legislation. They do the drafters' notes and provide insight. They are highly respected, highly professional lawyers.

Interviewer: So if you have a bill up to be drafted, it goes to . . . .

Potter: The Reference Bureau, which is a staff of attorneys that drafts the bill. They react to its constitutionality and its place in the Statutes. The Fiscal Bureau will be there to help you analyze the fiscal aspects and budget implications. We also have the Legislative Council, which is the non-partisan staff of attorneys that works with our committees. We have an attorney who staffs our education committee. The woman who currently does this is a very qualified person, and we listen to her intently because of her experience in education legislation. She can tell us what's wrong with a bill, how it should be better worded, what's consistent [with] the Statutes, and so on. So, we do have a variety of professional non-partisan information sources that we rely on very heavily.

Interviewer: Much like a good editor who knows that field specifically.

Potter: Yes. Then, of course, there is the area of special interest. The committee hearing might occur with a line up of various groups. Just as I said before, some groups have more power than others. So when we talk about who calls the shots or who is influential, we have to talk about the size of the groups. You can go through the directory of the hundreds of registered lobbyists and pick out some who are very influential. Many lobbyists are attorneys and are very able, but a lobbyist who is dishonest and is exposed for such loses his or her influence among the legislators.

Interviewer: There's a growing strategy for organizations to send out alerts to their membership that read, "Fill out this card. Send it to your legislator." How effective is that kind of canned response to a bill?

Potter: If I were to rank how to influence your legislator, first would be a face-to-face meeting. If a group calls and schedules a breakfast or dinner with a legislator, I think that is most influential. Second would be the phone call, another form of personal interaction. Third would be the personal letter. And then you would get into the petitions and the mass mailings as being the least effective. It would be impressive to receive a thousand postcards on an issue. That would tell you there is a groundswell out there, and you'd better be **cognizant** of it. But if you got two postcards that were simply signed and mimeographed and given to somebody it would be less influential than two personal letters.

Interviewer: How accessible are you for breakfasts and phone calls and other personal contacts?

Potter: I think legislators look for that. It's a simple means of interacting with people and trying to give them perspective on where you are coming from on a lot of issues. Sometimes a response to a postcard is rather narrowly scoped, and you look for a **forum** to discuss an issue more fully, exploring its complexity and looking at both sides. It's beneficial for the legislator as well as the constituent.

Interviewer: Do you get as many requests for personal appearances as you would like?

Potter: I think there is more of it than there has been in the past. I look for it because I like the format for an in-depth response. If you're a responsible individual you want to make sure your constituents fully understand your positions, and you can't often do that in a couple of paragraphs in a letter. Face-to-face interaction with people makes me feel more comfortable that I'm communicating with them. If they still think I'm wrong and they're not going to vote for me, fine, but at least there has been a maximum amount of information exchanged. And there's just an honest difference in opinion and not half-truths or inadequate forms of communication.

Interviewer: Do you think the average citizen feels that legislators and maybe all people involved with government are inaccessible?

Potter: I think many do feel that way, and to some extent, that's probably true. But we have a representative form of government because all 4.7 million people of Wisconsin cannot gather together to vote on laws and make decisions. Somebody has to be taking care of the lawmaking. We remove ourselves from the community to do that job and centralize the lawmaking process. We disappear for periods of time, and people probably see that as somewhat of a removal from interaction and contact but that is just what representative government is. And people will say they only see politicians during election time. And to some extent, I say that is true. But if I were around as much during the other periods of time, I shouldn't be in the job, because I would be missing committee meetings and floor sessions and the job I'm elected to do. So, yes, there's that perception, but that's just due to the fact that a lot of people haven't been in the state capitol in their whole lives and do not fully know what the lawmaking process is about. That is why it's important to elect people who know what to bring to the legislative body, because they have a tremendous responsibility to make decisions for other people who can't fully know what is going on because of interests and activities that they have to pursue in their lives back home.

Interviewer: How much are state legislators influenced by national party politics?

Potter: Minimally. I say that because national party politics is something that really focuses on a congressional and presidential level, and we have our own level of government. We have a mirror image of the structure, but we have to take care of our own shop and so we don't really interact. There is an influence from national politics, not necessarily partisan politics, and that influence is the result of national legislation. The drinking age is an example. The federal government has now mandated that we raise our drinking age to 21 by next year. They gave us a mandate that we do something on the seat belt issue or the federal government will. We've had numerous examples where the federal government has said that you have to do this or you have to meet these standards in order to qualify for federal aid So there is interaction between the two insofar as Congress often gives us a mandate to act on an issue.

Interviewer: How often does it go the other way, where a state legislature really pushes an issue and doesn't quit until it gains national attention?

Potter: I would say seldom. The **impetus** for legislation at the congressional level is the same as it is on the state level. Legislators in Congress tend to introduce bills at the national level because their constituents are interested and concerned about the issue.

Interviewer: What I keep hearing you say over and over again in different ways is that one person really can make a difference.

Potter: They can in the sense that legislation debated by a full legislature can indeed come from one person's idea. I would say that the majority of legislation isn't prompted by an individual but by a group. But where do the groups that initiate change get their ideas? The group is just a conduit or messenger for the ideas of individuals.

Interviewer: That is a stunning concept to think about. It really is, because I think if you're not involved directly with government there's a tendency to think of it as a kind of mill that is grinding out all this stuff. But all the stuff came from someone.

Potter: That's right.

Interviewer: If a student wants to trace a bill through the legislative process, how does she or he go about that?

Potter: First, you have to know the sources for tracking bills. When we're in session, the "Bulletin of the Proceedings of the Wisconsin Legislature" comes out every week and it lists every senate and assembly bill by subject, and author, and every **administrative rule** subject.

Interviewer: Every week? It's three inches thick!

Potter: Yes. Now that we're not in session, it comes out every three weeks. But when we are in session it is every week.

Interviewer: Why do they keep reprinting?

Potter: Because every week there are new bills. Every week committees have met, hearings have been held, votes have been taken. That book will say when a bill was introduced, when the hearing was held, when the executive session was held, what the vote was in committee, what the vote was on the floor, and when it was taken. It is the bible of what has happened.

Interviewer: It must just get bigger and bigger. Where can citizens see a copy?

Potter: It is in every public library in the state of Wisconsin. I believe many town clerk's offices get one, every county clerk, and every courthouse. If you go to a county clerk's office, they will get the weekly hearing bulletins, and they will have copies of every bill.

Interviewer: Is there some kind of description of a bill?

Potter: Yes. There's always an explanation in front of the bill put together by the person who's drafted it.

Interviewer: So, if students wanted to do research on a bill, track the bill through the legislative process, they could get their hands on this book, read through it and say, "I'm interested in this bill."

Potter: Yes. The county clerk's office or even the library might subscribe to the bill service also. You could get a copy of the bill. Another way is once you've identified the bill, just contact your own legislator for a copy and any supportive documents that might have been produced by the legislative council, by the Reference Bureau, or by the Fiscal Bureau. Those are oftentimes in pamphlet form and will be in addition to the analysis that's in the bill. So, you have to know your source of tracking and where that tracking material is. And once you identify the bills, you can always use your legislator. I get a lot of requests from people, students particularly, who will say, "Well, I am interested in education. Will you keep me posted as to all bills in education?" I then have to tell them what I told you. It's impossible for me to do this because of the number of bills and requests I get. People sometimes think there are about ten bills that affect education.

Interviewer: How many bills did your committee work on during the last legislation?

Potter: I couldn't tell you exactly, but several hundred.

Interviewer: Hundreds? How many actually reached the floor?

Potter: Out of our committee, probably the same proportion as you'd have during a general two-year session. It would be about one out of five. The key to tracing a bill is specifics. Say, "I am interested in the current status of Assembly Bill 23 or Senate Bill 100."

Interviewer: After 11 years' experience in the assembly, how effective and fair do you think the legislative process is?

Potter: The legislative process is a reflection of society. Some people are hard working, some people aren't hard working. Those who work hard, put in a lot of effort, are honest and have a lot of ability are more effective than others. Knowledge is power and, hard work is respected. There are some legislators who have not been respected.

The process itself is determined by those who are effective and those who are respected. Some are very intelligent, some are not very intelligent. Some belong down here, some don't belong down here and that's true of any profession. That's true of any group of people, and the legislature is nothing more than a mirror image of the **populous**. Position is power—speaker, majority leader, committee chairperson. The majority party has more power. The process itself is not perfect. It never will be, but it is still the best process that I can think of to make laws. Some sessions are better than others because of the quality of people. When I look at the legislature today, I think it is probably better than it's ever been, because I think the people are better educated, the average legislator is younger, it's more a cross-section of occupations, not to mention backgrounds. Today the legislative process is more fair and more honest with an ethics code for legislators, open meetings law, campaign laws, and codes for lobbyists. I think today the system is cleaner and more above board. Over time, the legislative process has worked effectively in addressing the problems in our democratic system.

Interview with Representative Calvin Potter

1. What are some sources that initiate legislation?

2. Why do committees consider some bills over others?

3. What is meant by fast-track consideration?

4. At what point in the legislative process are letters from constituents important?

5. What can legislators do to have the bills they have sponsored assigned a more favorable number?

6. Out of 2,000 bills, how many would be likely to reach the floor of the legislature for debate?

7. How and why does a bill usually get killed?

8. What role do political parties play in the legislative process?

9. Where would a legislator get assistance in preparing a bill?

10. How does Representative Potter rank the various strategies that a constituent or an organization can use to influence legislators? Do you agree and why?

11. Why does Representative Potter indicate there is some truth to the notion that the only time you see legislators is around elections?

12. How much influence do national political parties have on state legislators?

13. How can a person stay informed on the progress of a particular bill? Where can a person go to find this information?

How a Bill Becomes a Law in Wisconsin

Legislation

The process of deciding policy and enacting it into law is carried out by the legislature through the passage of bills, joint resolutions, and simple (one-house) resolutions. The purpose of a bill is to enact a law. A bill usually amends, creates, repeals, renumbers and amends, or repeals and recreates a section of the Wisconsin Statutes. The overwhelming proportion of measures introduced in the legislature consists of bills. A bill must go through both houses of the legislature and be signed by the governor before it becomes law. **Joint resolutions**, which do not require the governor's signature, may be introduced either for the purpose of amending the constitution—the major purpose of such resolutions—or for a variety of miscellaneous reasons, such as offering condolences or congratulations to individuals or expressing the opinion of the legislature on a given subject. **Simple resolutions** are those adopted by only one house and may be for such purposes as organizing the house at the beginning of the session or asking the attorney general for a legal opinion on a bill.

Introducing a Bill

Following the **drafting** of a proposal by the Legislative Reference Bureau, the progress of a bill through the Wisconsin Legislature begins with its introduction by one or more authors (members of the house of introduction) and possibly cosponsors (members of the other house), or by a legislative committee. No one else may introduce a bill; the executive budget bill, however, is by law introduced by the Joint Committee on Finance without change. As elected officials, the lawmakers act as the representatives of the people. Therefore, as every bill introduced in the legislature states, "The people of the state of Wisconsin, represented in the senate and assembly . . ." make the laws. Although a bill may be introduced in either house of the legislature by members of one house with cosponsors from the other house, sometimes identical bills are introduced in both houses. Whichever way it is done, each measure must go through the regular procedures and be passed by the house of origin before it can go to the other house, where the process is repeated.

Fiscal Estimates and Bill Analyses

On a routine basis, members of the legislature are supplied with information regarding every measure introduced. In 1953, Wisconsin pioneered **fiscal notes** to legislation, a procedure which has been widely copied by other states. Fiscal notes put a price tag on legislation—every measure which increases or decreases state or local government revenues or expenditures must be accompanied by a reliable estimate of its short-range and long-range fiscal effects. Most of the fiscal estimates are prepared by the agency that would ultimately administer the program if the measure is enacted into law. In the two highly technical areas of public retirement systems and tax exemptions, the fiscal estimates are prepared by a joint survey committee of legislators and others who, together with their own research assistants, evaluate not only the fiscal effect of a proposal, but also its legality under state and federal law and its desirability as a matter of continuing public policy. All bills for the **appropriation** of money, providing for revenue or relating to taxation, must be referred to the Joint Committee on Finance before they can be enacted into law.

Source: *Wisconsin Blue Book 1987-1988*, Legislative Reference Bureau, compiler. Madison, Wisconsin.

Since 1967, the Legislative Reference Bureau has prepared a bill analysis of each proposal introduced in the legislature. The analysis explains, in simple language, what the existing law is and how it will change if the measure becomes the law of Wisconsin. The analysis is printed in the bill immediately following the title.

First Reading

Upon introduction, each bill, joint resolution, or simple resolution is given a number by the chief clerk and "read the first time." First reading consists of the reading by the chief clerk of that part of the proposal's title known as the relating clause. Immediately after the title is read, the presiding officer refers the proposal to a standing committee for review. In the assembly, a written report showing the proposals to be introduced, together with the speaker's notation of committee referral, may be distributed to the representatives prior to the daily order of business known as first reading. This distribution takes the place of first reading. Printed copies of each bill, joint resolution, or simple resolution are available on the business day following the day of introduction.

A Hearing Is Held

At the discretion of the chairperson, the standing committee to which a proposal is referred may schedule and hold a hearing on the proposal. All committee proceedings are open to the public. If a hearing is held, anyone may appear to speak in favor or against a measure. The committee then decides whether to return the proposal to the house of origin with a favorable or adverse recommendation. It may return the proposal "without recommendation" only if the vote is tied. The committee may also recommend the bill in an amended form. The committee's decision is contained in a very brief report to the house. The following is an example of a committee report to the assembly from the *Journal of the Assembly*, February 3, 1987:

> The committee on the Ways and Means reports and recommends:
>
> Senate Bill 26
>
> Relating to permitting the secretary of administration, if requested by the governor, to change the biennial state budget process to an annual budget process in fiscal years 1987-88 and 1988-89.
>
> Adoption of assembly substitute amendment 1:
>
> Ayes: (13) Noes: (1)
>
> Concurrence: Ayes: (13) Noes: (1)
>
> To calendar.
>
> Jeffrey Neubauer
> Chairperson

Measures before a committee are to be taken up as soon as possible, with the scheduling of committee hearings determined by the chairpersons. A committee is allowed a reasonable period of time to consider matters referred to it. After 21 days, a proposal that has not been reported out of an assembly committee may be withdrawn on a motion or petition by majority vote of the assembly. In the senate, a proposal may be withdrawn from committee at any time by majority vote, but if the attempt is unsuccessful, all subsequent motions to withdraw the same proposal require a two-thirds vote.

To Calendar

Both houses of the Wisconsin Legislature have adopted procedures for scheduling proposals. In the senate, all proposals reported by standing committees are referred to the Committee on Senate Organization; in the assembly, they are referred to the Committee on Rules. These two committees schedule all business for floor debate.

Second Reading

When a bill is reached on the calendar, it is given a second reading by title. The assembly rules state the question before the house: "Shall the proposal be ordered engrossed and read a third time?" At this stage of the proceedings, amendments to the bill may be considered. Amendments to a bill may be offered at any time prior to **engrossment**. A simple amendment would make changes in the bill, while a substitute amendment would completely replace the original bill. Before a vote is taken on the question of engrossment, the amendments are debated and voted on. Engrossment is the incorporating of all adopted amendments and all approved technical corrections in a proposal in the house of original. The rules of both houses require rescheduling of the proposal after engrossment. This would allow time for reconsideration of the vote by which the proposal was ordered engrossed. However, in many cases the rules are suspended (by **unanimous consent** or by a two-thirds vote) so that second reading and third reading can occur on the same legislative day.

Third Reading

The purpose of the third reading is to make a final decision on a proposal. After third reading, the question becomes: "This bill having been read three separate times, the question is, 'Shall the bill pass?'" The bill can again be debated at this point but cannot be amended. The bill may be passed by voice vote or by roll-call (the assembly uses an electric roll-call machine). Some types of proposals require a roll-call vote.

The Second House

If the bill passes, it is sent to the other house, where it goes through substantially the same procedure as in the first house. However, in the second house the bill is often referred directly to the calendar instead of to a standing committee. If the bill is agreeable to the second house, whether with or without additional amendments, it is sent back to the house of original. If no amendments were added to the bill by the second house, the first house is ready to enroll it, that is, to direct the Legislative Reference Bureau to prepare a clean copy of the text agreed to by both houses.

Amendments in the Second House

If the second house **concurred** with amendments, these must first be voted upon in the house of original. If any amendments are rejected or further amended by the first house, the bill could return to the other house; or a conference committee, made up of members from each house, could be appointed to iron out the differences between the senate-passed version and the assembly-passed version. When both houses have agreed on identical bill and amendments, the Legislative Reference Bureau enrolls it for the house of origin. In other words, the Bureau incorporates any amendments and corrections approved by both houses, producing a "clean" text. The official copy is signed by the president of the senate, the speaker of the assembly, and the chief clerk of the house of origin, and the bill is sent to the governor.

The Governor Signs or Vetoes the Bill

The governor has six days, excluding Sundays, to approve or veto a bill. The governor may

- sign a bill, in which case it becomes law;
- fail to sign it within six days, whereby—if the legislature is still in session—it would become law without the governor's signature;
- veto it in whole or, if an appropriation bill, in part; or
- if the legislature has adjourned, and the governor fails to sign it within six days, the bill is killed, a so-called **pocket veto**.

Since the legislature usually does not adjourn until the next legislature convenes, the pocket veto is no longer used.

Bills are not sent to the governor immediately following passage, but are sent in an orderly manner when called for by his office. The legislative session schedule, however, provides deadlines following each floor period when any remaining bills must be sent to the governor and provides a specific floor period for final review by the legislature of the governor's vetoes.

If the governor vetoes a bill, the governor returns it to the house of origin together with his objections to the measure. That house may pass the bill over the governor's veto (**overrule** the veto), but it requires a two-thirds vote to do so. If this is done, the bill goes to the other house, and again a two-thirds vote is necessary for passage. If either house fails to muster the sufficient number of votes, the bill dies, and the governor's veto is said to be sustained.

Session Laws

After passage, the bill is assigned an act number (that is, each enacted bill is numbered in the consecutive order of enactment), and its number and title are printed in the *Milwaukee Sentinel*, a newspaper which, for purposes of publication of the laws, has been designated the official state paper. The day after publication, the act takes effect unless the final clause of the law specifies another date. The acts are printed and ultimately published by the secretary of state in a volume called *Laws of Wisconsin*, containing all the laws enacted by that particular biennial legislature. These laws are then incorporated by the revisor of the statutes into the edition of the Wisconsin Statutes for that legislative biennium. Thus, the edition identified as the *1985-86 Wisconsin Statutes* includes all changes made by the laws enacted by the 1985 Wisconsin Legislature. All sections of the Statutes that were repealed have been deleted; all sections that have been amended are printed in their new version; and all sections that have been created have been inserted in their proper sequence in the Statutes.

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How a Bill Becomes a Law in Wisconsin

1. Describe the purposes of the three types of legislation drafted by the legislature.

2. Who can introduce legislative proposals in the legislature? Who drafts the legislative proposals?

3. What is the purpose of fiscal estimates, and how is the information prepared and distributed in the legislature?

4. Describe the "first reading" stage of the legislative process.

5. At what point in the legislative process may a citizen voice concern about proposed legislation?

6. Describe the work of a standing committee after the first reading is held.

7. Which two committees schedule bills on the calendar after the bills are sent by the standing committee?

8. Describe the "second reading" stage of the legislative process. Define the term engrossment.

9. Describe the "third reading" stage of the legislative process.

10. What happens to a piece of legislation when it clears the second house without amendments?

11. What happens to a piece of legislation when it clears the second house with amendments?

12. Describe the choices a governor has regarding a piece of legislation after it is passed by both houses and is sent for a signature.

13. How can a bill be passed after a veto?

14. What must happen after a bill, signed by the governor, becomes a law?

Small-Town Government

This activity, provided by Judy Adrian of McFarland, Wisconsin, is designed to acquaint students with some small-town government dynamics. The lessons would serve as an excellent introduction to the Mock Legislature Unit. In the accompanying article, Adrian offers an inside look at her six years on McFarland's Planning Commission as she explains the strengths and weaknesses of small-town government.

Lesson 1

Skills Focus

Communicating
Read for meaning

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups

Resources

"Small-Town Government: A Personal Perspective" (reading and study guide included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Tell students they will participate in an activity simulating law making at the local level. This reading will give them some insights into local government.
2. Review the reading and study guide with the students. Allow students the remainder of time to complete the assignment. This assignment also could be assigned as homework.

Follow-up Lesson

Using the study guide, discuss the reading. To expand the discussion, have students speculate on some of the problems and long-range goals of their local government. Students could poll local government officials on these issues and give their results during the discussion. Also, members of local government could be invited to discuss the issues with the students.

Small-Town Government: A Personal Perspective

As I enter the sixth year of my so-called one-year appointment to the Planning Commission—a glorious name for six untrained volunteers—I still ask some of the same questions. After one meeting, I concluded that small-town and suburban government is the last political arena where ideas can lead to action rather than further discussion. After other sessions, I ask myself, why are most of our decisions unanimous? I sometimes ask, can this form of government possibly be a microcosm of state or federal operations?

While special-interest groups influence the larger political systems, our local government relies on its members' special knowledge. With the exception of a two-year period, most issues brought to the Planning Commission arose from the expertise of individual members. Our president, for example, works in the solar dish industry; we may be the first community in the county to have a multi-page ordinance controlling these dishes. The ordinance includes sections on installation and site restrictions, even prohibitions on painting the dishes with lovely forest scenes. On a similar issue, solar panels, we have no ordinance. No commission member has any expertise in this area, so we will tackle it when village residents complain.

Help from the Outside

In our defense, the issues facing a small-town planning commission and village board have become increasingly diverse and complex, often raising legal questions. We do purchase legal advice and engineering counsel, but often the question is how do we use these services appropriately, yet not excessively?

In the early 1980s the commission, with support from the village board, completed an important endeavor. Contracts were negotiated with three groups: an engineering firm, a law firm specializing in land use, and the regional planning commission. With this professional help and what we called a natural building moratorium—the period of high mortgage rates and stunted home sales—we revised and updated the Village Master Plan and Official Map. Along with these changes, we reviewed the zoning and building codes and adopted a strict sign ordinance.

For a brief time, our commission, the village board, other concerned committees, and residents at the numerous hearings stepped back to view the bigger picture—where do we want to be as a village in 20 years?

I noticed two interesting results of this massive project. Those of us who participated can fairly easily vote in a block (unanimously) on certain issues. We have discussed villagewide implications prior to a given developer coming to us with a plan to put, for example, a resort in a mixed residential and commercial area along our little lakeshore. If nothing else, we know which questions to ask. Many of the developers are not local and are unaware of this plan. Is it possible that we have lost some flexibility and are hurting local residents and businesses by use of this plan, or is this an indication that we know what we want and are not settling for less, thereby protecting local residents and businesses?

When Solutions Become Problems

This Planning Commission is not the first to sit down and attempt to make long-range decisions. About 20 years ago, a similar group voted to sell hundreds of acres of farm land to oil companies that intended to put up huge gasoline storage tanks. Tank farms now stretch nearly two miles along the entrance to the village. The resulting taxes built the local school district and spurred village growth five times beyond its original size. But when the state changed its laws tax income from the tanks nearly stopped. Now, many are empty and serve as an unsightly welcome mat for the village.

Source: Judy Adrian, Member, McFarland Planning Commission

United to soothe this eyesore, the village decided to plant trees along the highway to hide the tanks. By the following season, thousands of experimental disease-resistant elms were planted according to plans drawn by landscape architecture students from the state university. Using volunteer workers and enlisting the local fire department to provide regular watering, the cost to the village was very low.

At times I'm excited about what can be accomplished quickly. Other times, issues drag on for months and end up in extra costs and bad feelings. One businessman had worked for five years building a junk yard. But the village never enforced an ordinance prohibiting junk yards because no one complained and the area, though residential, was zoned industrial. These residents had fought to maintain the industrial zoning during changes in the official mapping, because it allowed them to operate small businesses in their homes. But a five-year-old junk yard was too much, and they complained. After months of negotiations, the permit to continue junking was denied. And now the five-acre junk yard is for sale.

Residents have told me that the selective enforcement of ordinances—they call it using common sense—is one of the advantages of living in a small-town. I've never heard complaints about the "judge" reducing traffic or parking fines for those appearing in "court," generally the local people.

This common sense enforcement adds a dimension to developing or altering village ordinances. During discussions on our new sign ordinance, we spent a long time on whether garage-sale signs nailed on trees and telephone poles would continue to be permitted. We finally decided to leave in the section prohibiting the practice and to not enforce it.

Growth Requires Major Decisions

With the exception of the two years spent on long-range planning, the planning commission often seems to have long discussions on little issues, such as garage-sale signs. Perhaps we like to deal with the small issues because we cannot see how to control the larger ones, although we might have to. Regional planning commission projections show our village and its surrounding area growing to 25,000 from 4,000 in the next 25 years. Huge decisions need to be made about the balance of residential and commercial areas, the direction we want to see growth progress, the extension and limits of urban services, the number of wells and septic systems to be allowed, and finally, the question of do we want this growth and could we stop it.

The township bordering the village on the south passed a building moratorium and enforced it for several years. The pressure from the city to the north and from some property owners has been tremendous, as growth continues on the township borders.

Although we can make decisions on these issues, we do not have total control over our future. Decisions made by surrounding townships, cities, the county, and the state affect what happens here. A major contributor to our projected growth is the state's decision to widen to four lanes the highway running through the village. Two years ago, two bridges north of the village were rebuilt. For six months we took alternate routes out of town. Recently, we learned that the highway through town will be widened in four years, and the two-mile stretch between the tank farms will be widened in six years. Although our various village committees confer with the state about access road placement and traffic patterns, I am certain that our contribution is advisory at most.

One issue raised by this construction project restores some of my confidence in that we are doing as well as we can. The new highway requires an additional six feet of land, thus threatening the thousands of experimental elm trees. But, the project also calls for rebuilding two eight-year-old bridges. Perhaps there are more similarities than I realized between local governments and their state and federal counterparts.

Small-Town Government: A Personal Perspective

1. Explain the role of individual expertise in local government.

2. How might a local government solve a problem in which they have no expertise?

3. Long-range planning was mentioned as an important element of local government. What could happen that might affect the outcome of such plans?

4. Make a list of the positive and negative aspects of small-town government.

Access to Government

This activity is designed to demonstrate the various functions and services provided by local and state governments. It is recommended that teachers tailor the activity to fit a community that students are familiar with. Local telephone directories list community service and government office telephone numbers; some communities also publish their own directories. Both would be helpful in preparing the lesson. Through the activity students should learn about the many services provided by state and local governments as well as the ways students benefit from these services.

Lesson 1

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions.

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups.

Resources

"Access to Government" (study guide and activity sheet included), phonebook, local government directory

Suggested Procedure

1. Distribute the study guide and activity sheet and the listings for city, county, and state government offices. Review the instructions with the students, and work through one of the problems with the class. Some answers have been filled in.
2. Students can work individually or in pairs to complete the assignment. Instruct students that they should not leave any answers blank, but should take their best guess.
3. During the last 15 minutes of class discuss the answers. If desired, extend the discussion to the next day.

Access to Government

Instructions: All of the problems described below can be solved with the help of a local or state government agency. You are to decide whom you would call for a solution to each problem and what level of government that agency represents. Write your answer in the appropriate column on the answer sheet.

1. You want to know if you may use your inner tube when swimming at the local pool.
2. You want to know if the softball games are rained out.
3. You want to know when the vehicle-emission inspection station opens and closes.
4. You think your elm tree may be diseased, but you want an expert opinion.
5. You just saw your neighbor abusing the family dog and you want to report it.
6. Your school's media center doesn't have the book you want. You want to read it but not buy it.
7. A pothole in front of your house is almost big enough to swallow a dog. You want it filled.
8. You want to schedule your driver's test.
9. You are disturbed by the increasing amount of illegal gambling in local bars. You call the district attorney to ask that his staff investigate the problem and put an end to it.
10. You forgot what time you are due to appear in court for running a stop sign.
11. You have been arrested for breaking and entering and assault and battery, but you cannot afford a lawyer.
12. You need a copy of your birth certificate and would also like to get an identification card.
13. You think you may have VD, and your doctor is on vacation.
14. Your blind uncle from Tennessee has moved in with your family. You need help in caring for him.
15. After a serious motorcycle accident left you partially paralyzed, you realize you cannot continue your present job. You need rehabilitation and training for another vocation.
16. You want to join the military and would like more information on the Army National Guard's college program.
17. Your grandfather is going to retire next year. He has no interests, and you are afraid he will waste away from his inactivity. You want to get him involved in programs for people his age.
18. You have been told your kids need measles shots or they will not be allowed to attend school. If they do not attend school, you could be arrested for causing their truancy, but the family does not have a doctor. Where could you get shots for the kids?
19. Your best friend has begun abusing alcohol and drugs. You want to find help for your friend.
20. You see a person collapse on the sidewalk in front of your house. You want to get medical assistance for this person.

Access to Government

	What agency do you call?	What level of government?
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		*city*
5.	*Humane Society*	
6.		
7.		
8.		
9.	*District Attorney*	
10.		
11.		*state*
12.		
13.		
14.		*state*
15.		
16.		
17.		*county*
18.		
19.		
20.		

Mock Legislature

Rationale

If students become decision makers or influence them, they must learn the fundamentals of the legislative process. First, they must understand the complexity of an issue—its historical roots, the diversity of positions, and the arguments behind them. Second, they must understand how the legislative process works; relying solely on a textbook and lecture approach to teach these essentials is not enough. Students must experience the process through direct involvement. This unit is not designed to merely acquaint students with the legislative process; it is designed to immerse them in it. By the conclusion of this unit, students will have had the opportunity to spend up to six months researching and presenting a variety of issues. Their efforts will culminate with several weeks of debate on these issues through the legislative process.

Students are not the only group in need of units such as this. Educators have often expressed disappointment over the lack of practical materials that allow them to venture out of the civics text. This unit provides teachers with a foundation that may be adopted or adapted into their existing curriculum. The following chart offers an overview of the activities. It also serves as a flow chart for teachers who want to recreate the activity to fit their program and time.

The State Citizenship Model

This unit correlates with the state citizenship curriculum in three essential areas. (See *A Guide to Curriculum Planning in Social Studies*. Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1986, pp. 72-76.) Thematically, it answers a question posed as a topic for this unit: "How does a bill become a law?" Methodologically, it creates a year-long current events and political involvement experience. And, conceptually, it addresses the key ideas of government, constitution, legislation, representative, veto, suffrage, law, amendment, and political parties.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Selecting Issues</th></tr>
<tr><td>Lessons 1 - 2
Time Required
2 Days</td><td>Students will
• identify issues
• select issues
• join research committees</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Preparing for Research</th></tr>
<tr><td>Lessons 3 - 5
Time Required
3 Days</td><td>Students will
• learn research skills
• learn notetaking
• identify essential information</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Researching Issues</th></tr>
<tr><td>Lessons 6 - 8
Time Required
20 - 30 Days</td><td>Students will
• gather and sort information
• seek outside sources
• conduct interviews
• write letters</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Reporting on Issues</th></tr>
<tr><td>Lessons 9 - 10
Time Required
10 - 12 Days</td><td>Students will
• prepare reports and outlines
• draft position statements
• practice and edit reports
• write position papers</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Writing Legislation</th></tr>
<tr><td>Lessons 11 - 12
Time Required
4 Days</td><td>Students will
• identify problems
• draft legislation
• write bills and resolutions
• run gubernatorial campaigns</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Legislative Session</th></tr>
<tr><td>Lessons 13 - 18
Time Required
25 - 30 Days</td><td>Students will
• present reports and legislation
• join standing committees
• revise and present legislation
• debate and amend proposals
• elect a governor
• settle differences in conference committees</td></tr>
</table>

Calendar

This unit is a very sophisticated simulation. The success of any simulation is based on the quality of preparation preceding it. The majority of lessons in this unit prepare students for the actual mock legislature. Note that the unit does not run in a consecutive daily sequence; the initial 12 lessons should be spread over a six-month period, while the remaining lessons run over seven consecutive weeks. For those not able to afford the time required for the larger unit or those wanting an abbreviated version, it can be trimmed to fit into a one-semester course by compressing the first four phases into seven lessons. One possible layout for this seven-lesson session follows:

Lesson 1: Introduce research format; see Lesson 2. Prior to this, students should have been given background information and have submitted their committee choices. See Lesson 1.

Lesson 2: Begin instruction on identifying essential information; see Lesson 3.

Lesson 3: Media center research begins; see Lessons 7 and 8. Students should be given several days to research their issue while being monitored and assisted. From this point on they can work independently.

Lessons 4 - 7: Committee report preparation starts; see Lessons 9 and 10. The original 11-day sequence can be pared down by using class days for instruction and assigning tasks as homework.

At this point, begin with Lesson 11 of the regular unit.

Materials and Resources

Essential materials such as media center resources are referenced. The unit requires access to a well-stocked media center or public library and access to duplication facilities. Other valuable resources include a cooperative librarian and a reading resource specialist familiar with strategies for teaching reading in content areas. Lastly, consider conducting the unit simultaneously with another class taught by you or another teacher. One class could compose one house or party, the other class being the other side.

Selecting Issues for a State Model

This simulation, based on the Wisconsin Legislature, is bicameral and basically follows the same procedures. If desired, this state model could be easily converted to a local or national model through minor modifications, mainly terminology. The state model, however, offers the advantage of interaction with national, state, and local issues. States often work in the larger arena, as they conform state law to federal guidelines and draft measures to augment federal law, on such issues as abortion, gun control, euthanasia, and toxic wastes among others. Even international and defense issues, once the exclusive domain of the U.S. Congress, can be discussed at the state level. Likewise, local governments grapple with national and international issues, although on a much smaller scale. However, the sharper focus of local governments presents students with a chance to examine issues closer to home. But while federal lawmakers can propose either a bill or a resolution on most issues, state and local legislators only produce resolutions expressing their recommendations to the federal government. Thus, using a state or local model allows the broadest choice of topics. Issues ranging from the location of a state highway to international arms control fall within these models. A list of possible state, national, and local issues, which might be considered for the mock legislature, follows this section.

Potential Problems

The unit focuses on issues that students will research. Issues, by nature, are controversial. Teachers implementing this should know district guidelines on controversial issues, especially its policy on balanced views. Even a seemingly harmless list of issues might offend someone. Always be candid with the principal and school board, when involving these people in your curriculum. Gain their endorsement as a safeguard against censors. Open house or back-to-school night is a good time to present the unit to parents. Also seek key individuals in the community for support and help while preparing and conducting the unit.

Finally, the availability of research materials should be considered when choosing issues. Consult the school and public librarians to help develop a list of issues. Even interesting issues that lack adequate research materials will hamper various phases of this simulation.

Suggestions for Additional Activities

- Select the best reports for each issue and videotape them for broadcast on the local education or community-access cable channel.
- Have students conduct a political opinion poll prior to a local election by surveying family members and friends.
- If the school is a voting site, obtain permission from poll officials for students to conduct an exit poll.
- Designate a class day for students to invite community leaders and politicians to speak to their research committee regarding the committee's issue. Students not able to secure someone could choose or be assigned to other committees to hear the presentation.
- Ask local and state representatives, lobbyists, or other interested persons to spend time in class as the students prepare their bills and resolutions.

Mock Legislature: Selecting Issues

Lesson 1

Skills Focus

Group Participation
Contribute to discussions in large and small groups

Searching
Develop, consider, and evaluate alternatives

Resources

"Suggested Issues" (data sheet included), "Committee Topics" (data sheet included), current events file

Suggested Procedure

1. Selecting issues can take several routes. One excellent approach is to use the results of a current events project completed earlier in the year. Articles and interviews will help students identify issues. Plan ahead to decide on research topics and issues for the mock legislature. The number of committees is determined by the number of students. Examples of committees that my be formed include the following:

   Foreign Policy
   Environmental Issues
   Ethics and Social Issues
   Constitution, Law, and Justice
   Controlled Activities
   Education and Research
   Economic Issues
   Labor Issues
   Agricultural Issues
   Defense
   Energy

   Another approach to generating issues would allow students to discuss a list of issues and make additions and subtractions.

2. Make a chart of committee topics and selected issues. Tell students they will begin a long-term research project leading to bills and resolutions to be considered by the mock legislature. Have students note their interests on the issue chart. Assign students to committees based on their interests and the need to distribute students across the issues.

Suggested Issues

National

(These issues, handled by the United States Congress, are limited to a resolution by state and local legislators.)

Arms control
Balanced federal budget
Defense spending
Electoral college
Genetic engineering
International trade regulations
Immigration and naturalization law
Foreign aid
Foreign policy
Mandatory air bags in automobiles
National health-care insurance
Selective Service system
Strategic Defense Initiative
Chemical weapon treaties
Space program
Terrorism policies
Test-tube babies

National and State Issues

(These issues may be dealt with at the national and state levels through a bill or resolution or at the local level with either a bill or a resolution.)

Abortion
Academic censorship
Acid rain
Affirmative action
AIDS
Air-quality standards
Animal Experimentation
Birth control
Capital punishment
Censorship
Corporal punishment in schools
Drug enforcement
Drug testing
Drunk driving
Drinking age
Endangered species
Euthanasia
Evolution versus creationism in curricula
Farm aid
55-mph speed limit
Gun control
Insanity plea
Juveniles tried as adults
Learnfare
Nuclear power
Nuclear waste disposal
Hunting regulations
Plant-closing legislation
Tax reform
Solar power
Strip mining
Minority rights
Surrogate mothers
Unemployment
Animal Experimentation
Workfare
Women's rights (ERA)
Teacher-competency testing

States Issues

(These issues may be dealt with by either a state bill or a state or local resolution.)

- Corporate takeover legislation
- Line-item veto
- Lottery and paramutual betting
- Minimum wage
- Mandatory high school competency tests
- Mandatory seat-belt use
- Mining rights in northern Wisconsin
- Prison sites
- Project ELF (Extremely Low Frequency)
- Sex education in public schools
- Tax reform
- Home schooling
- Drinking age
- University entrance requirements
- Welfare system reform
- Beer-only bars for 19- and 20- year-olds

Local, School, State, National Issues

(These issues have local, school, state, and national connections. They may be submitted as a bill or resolution.)

- Property tax relief
- School newspaper censorship
- Incentives for local businesses
- Equal housing opportunities
- School desegregation
- Smoking bans in pubic facilities
- Toxic waste, landfill, and recycling
- Indian treaty rights
- Emergency 911 service
- Low-income housing
- Student graduation requirements
- Animal shelter services
- Speed limits
- Day Care services
- Child abuse
- Alcohol- and drug-abuse prevention
- Vandalism and shoplifting prevention
- Prayer in schools
- Energy conservation
- Water-quality standards

Committee Topics

An issue may fall under the jurisdiction of numerous committees. Women's rights, for example, has economic, ethical, legal, and other implications. The topics and committee assignments listed below merely illustrate the committees' authority.

Foreign Policy
- U. S. relations with South Africa
- U. S. relations with Nicaragua

Environmental Affairs
- Acid rain
- Toxic wastes

Economic Affairs
- Employment
- Women's rights

Ethics and Social Affairs
- Euthanasia
- Abortion

Constitution, Law, and Justice
- Capital punishment
- Handgun control

Controlled Activities
- State lottery
- Drinking age

Education and Research
- Academic censorship
- Vivisection

Defense
- Arms control
- Defense spending

Energy
- Nuclear energy
- Solar energy

Labor
- Minimum wage
- Plant closings

Agricultural
- Subsidy payments
- Drought relief

List your first three committee choices and explain your reasons.

1. ____________________

2. ____________________

3. ____________________

Mock Legislature: Selecting Issues

Lesson 2

Skills Focus

Searching
Develop, consider, and evaluate choices

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions

Resources

"Research Format" (data sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Assign students to committees based on the preference sheet they filled out for Lesson 1. Limit the number, however, so that each committee has a minimum of four students.
2. Divide the class into an "assembly" and a "senate." Ideally, the division should leave at least one student from each house working on each issue.
3. Once in committees, allow students time to select an issue and notify the instructor of their choice and reasons in writing.
4. Introduce the research format, a shopping list of information the students will be expected to provide on their issue. A sample format sheet is included. Review each category of the format, explain key words, and clarify items as necessary.
5. At the end of class, remind students to look for additional information on their issue, specifically, information that fits the research format.

Research Format

History of the Issue

Basic Problem. How are people affected by this issue? Give statistics indicating the size of the problem—how many people and how large an area are involved, what will it cost, and so on. Include case studies describing specific instances of the issue from both the positive and negative perspectives.

Key Vocabulary. What must be understood to make sense of this issue? List only specific words, terms, or concepts. Define each item in easily understood terms.

Timeline. When did the issue first surface? List key events such as trials, demonstrations, or disasters. Provide dates and a description of the event and its significance to the issue.

Current Situation. What laws, if any, concerning the issue are in effect or are being proposed? List current laws (local, state, federal), current bills (within the last year), or other proposals (from politicians, special interest groups, and government agencies).

Supporting the Position Statement

Proponents. What key individuals or groups favor this position? Include elected officials, political parties, special interest groups, and others capable of influencing or making decisions on the issue.

Supporting Reasons. How do they support their position? As you record the reasons classify them into two categories: general and specific. General statements are broad and lack details. Specific statements include charts, tables, statistics, graphs, facts, and values that support the general statements.

Supporting Solutions. What strategies and methods does this side propose to resolve this issue? Describe each solution, its possible impact, and any other information necessary to understand the issue. In some cases the solution may be to keep the status quo.

Opposing the Position Statement

Opponents. What key individuals or groups favor this position? Include elected officials, political parties, special interest groups, and others capable of influencing or making decisions on the issue.

Opposing Reasons. How do they support their position? As you record the reasons classify them into two categories: general and specific.

Opposing Solutions. What strategies and methods does this side propose to resolve this issue? Describe each solution, its possible impact, and any other information necessary to understand the issue. In some cases the solution may be to keep the status quo.

Mock Legislature: Preparing for Research

Lesson 3

Skills Focus

Classifying
Group information based on established criteria

Analyzing
Recognize similarities and differences between pieces of information

Resources

"Research Format" (data sheet from Lesson 2), "Essential and Nonessential Information" (activity sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Tell students the next several lessons should provide them with the proper skills to conduct their research.
2. Distribute the first handout. Clarify the instructions and point out the position statement. Explain that a position statement clarifies the pros and cons of an issue. Remind them that people either support or oppose the position statement, not the issue.
3. Work through the first several statements as a class and then allow time for students to finish individually. It would be helpful if they had their "Research Format" sheets for reference. After students have completed the assignment, discuss the answers.
4. Distribute the second handout. Explain that the excerpts come from an article much like ones they will use for their research. Read the instructions, clarifying as necessary. Work through the first paragraph as a class and then have students begin the assignment, which is due the next day.

Essential and Nonessential Information

Instructions. Read each statement and classify it based on the position statement below. Justify your answer by underlining the supporting parts of the statement.

Position Statement: Wisconsin should ban the lottery.

Key: **H** = History of the issue
S = Supporting argument or solution
O = Opposing argument or solution
N = None of the above

_____ 1. John Smith, Illinois attorney general, says his state annually spends $5 million to keep organized crime out of the state lottery system. He estimates that he is no more than 30 percent successful.

_____ 2. Arkansas reduced state property taxes by 7 percent as a result of starting its lottery.

_____ 3. Already 35 states have, or are in the process of starting, a state-run lottery

_____ 4. Before it began the existing lottery, the closest Wisconsin came to starting a lottery was in 1970 when it sanctioned church bingo games.

_____ 5. Hardware Store in New Castle, Pennsylvania, has the state record for selling the most lottery tickets in one day—1,105.

_____ 6. California plans to reduce or eliminate the state sales tax through a lottery.

_____ 7. John Buckley, a spokesman for the United Defense League, claims that lottery players are largely made up of the urban poor who spend money on lottery tickets instead of essentials like food and clothing.

_____ 8. Maine has a lottery run twice a year. State officials claim that this keeps out organized crime and eliminates compulsive gambling.

_____ 9. Wisconsin officials estimate that over 100,000 Wisconsinites buy lottery tickets from neighboring states.

_____ 10. On July 9, 1984, the Illinois State Lottery grand prize was $4 million.

Mock Legislature: Preparing for Research

Lesson 4

Skills Focus

Classifying
Group information based on established criteria

Analyzing
Recognize similarities and differences between pieces of information

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups
Listen to and be considerate of people's contributions and points of view

Suggested Procedure

1. Discuss the answers from Lesson 3. Encourage debate, but emphasize the need for supporting reasons. Encourage student questions regarding this procedure. The inquires are on essential skill for completing this project.
2. Tell students they will need a binder or folder to hold their materials for this project. They will need to take notes for each format area on separate sheets of paper. They should label ten sheets of paper as follows:

    1. Basic Problem
    2. Key Vocabulary
    3. Timeline
    4. Status Quo
    5. Proponents
    6. Supporting Reasons—General/Specific
    7. Supporting Solutions
    8. Opponents
    9. Opposing Reasons—General/Specific
    10. Opposing Solutions

    Students should label statements taken on sheets 6 and 9 with a "G" for general or "S" or specific. Tell students they will receive more instruction on this process in Lesson 5.
3. If a sheet gets filled, tell students to start another with the same heading. The amount of required notes will be assigned later.

Mock Legislature: Preparing for Research

Lesson 5

Skills Focus

Translating
Put data in new, more usable forms

Interpreting
Give data meaning

Communicating
Read for meaning

Resources

"Research Format" (data sheet from Lesson 2), "General and Specific Information" (activity sheet included), "Taking Notes In Your Own Words" (activity sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Direct student attention to their "Research Format" sheets, specifically the section listing supporting reasons. Discuss differentiating between general statements and specific details, an important research skill.
2. Distribute the "General and Specific Information" handout and clarify the instructions. Allow students time to complete the exercise. When finished, discuss the answers.
3. Explain another important research skill—paraphrasing. Students should use the following three guidelines for this skill.

   - The number of words used from the original statement will vary. Use as many of your own words as possible.
   - The paraphrased version may be shorter or longer than the original statement but should not alter the meaning.
   - Do not guess at what the statement is saying. Also, the note must be readable and understandable several months later.

4. Distribute the second handout. Explain the instructions. Have students complete the statements one at a time, stopping after each to discuss answers. Remind them that no one answer is right but that they should remember the three guidelines.

General and Specific Information

Instructions. Below are several statements taken from various news articles on highway speed limits. Using the information from your "Research Format" sheet, classify each statement in its proper category. Underline the portion of the statement that supports your choice.

Position Statement: Wisconsin should resume the 55-mph speed limit.

Key: **SG** = Supporting Reason—General
SS = Supporting Reason—Specific
OG = Opposing Reason—General
OS = Opposing Reason—Specific

_____ 1. The most compelling reason against the 65-mph speed limit, even on rural interstate highways, is that it has increased highway deaths.

_____ 2. With 45,000 deaths a year on our highways now, we should look for ways to reduce death and injury.

_____ 3. There is no relationship between higher speed limits and more highway accidents.

_____ 4. The 55-mph speed limit saved millions of barrels of oil every year, approximately 2 percent of our nation's fuel consumption.

_____ 5. Rural roads posted at 30 mph or less have a fatality rate of 12.5 deaths per 100 million vehicle miles traveled. As posted speeds increase, the fatality rate drops to 1.3 deaths per 100 million miles traveled at 65 mph.

_____ 6. Recent polls show that 76 percent of the public supported the 55-mph speed limit.

_____ 7. At least 80 percent of drivers exceeded the 55-mph speed limit.

_____ 8. For all practical purposes, the 55-mph speed limit was repealed by motorists in the United States.

_____ 9. The millions of dollars spent on enforcement of a lower limit are better spent on other highway safety measures.

_____ 10. The small segment of the population that is for the higher speed limit should not dictate life-and-death policy.

Taking Notes in Your Own Words

Instructions. Read the following statements about the 55-mph speed limit. Then, in the space provided, rewrite the statement in your own words. Remember, you are encouraged to use your own words and avoid direct copying.

1. Nevada is one of several states that created small "energy waster" fines instead of speeding tickets for those who drove between 56 and 70 mph.

2. Ten years after its controversial enactment, "the law you can live with" was tested and detested every time Americans took to the highway.

3. Some anti-55 groups argue that the original reason for 55—fuel savings—no longer applies. "Cars are smaller now, they work more efficiently," says Atchison.

4. Oklahoma was in danger of losing federal highway money because of too many violators. However, Oklahoma took steps to hold down speeders—more aerial enforcement, signs, and tickets—in return for keeping about $5 million in federal highway money.

5. The National Safety Council strongly argued for keeping the speed down. Besides saving 40,000 lives, the lower limit conserved at least 56 billion gallons of gasoline and reduced paralyzing spinal cord injuries from auto wrecks by 60 percent, the council said.

Mock Legislature: Researching Issues

Lesson 6

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions

Resources

Guidelines, rules, and instructions for library facilities

Suggested Procedure

1. Students should be ready to use the resources available in the school media center and public library. This lesson, while specific to each school, offers helpful research guidelines. Depending on the facility, its resources, and student ability, you may want to allot more days for this lesson.

2. The following can help:

   - Involve the school librarian in planning and presenting this lesson. A reading specialist also is helpful. A team comprised of these specialists can assemble a very effective lesson.
   - Inform the local library of your project to see what assistance it can offer students. You may want to invite a librarian from the public library to address the students as part of this lesson.
   - Start an active vertical file on the issues you are researching. Have students contribute news clippings and copies of articles.

3. Cover the following topics in the lesson:

   - How to use the *Periodical Guide* and other indexes.
   - How to use a vertical file.
   - How to make a working bibliography, so that each note can be traced to its source.
   - How to use the card catalog or computer terminals to create a bibliography.
   - How to use other special resources.

Mock Legislature: Researching Issues

Lesson 7

Skills Focus

Searching
Read, gather, and organize information from various sources

Communicating
Read for meaning
Listen carefully, and ask questions

Suggested Procedure

1. To help students begin their research, have the class meet with the school librarian and reading specialist. Schedule two consecutive days (or more, if needed) in the media center soon after the library orientation. (See Lesson 6.)
2. While in the media center, the instructor(s) can assist students resolve problems or concerns as they arise. Success of the project will hinge on this lesson. The instructor(s) should meet with every student to ensure that each can meet the lesson's requirements.
3. Students should continue research on their own in the media center and the public library. Have the class meet in the school library as necessary. This will give students more time for research and give teachers a chance to monitor student progress.
4. Tell students to prepare for several scheduled note checks. You may want to require students to meet a minimum number of sources and/or notecards.

Follow-up Lesson

The note check should focus on two levels. The first, a student self-evaluation, can be done through a form listing categories suggested by the research format. (See Lesson 2.) For each area have students answer questions regarding the quantity and quality of their notes. In addition, students should mention any problems they are encountering with the project. The second level, a student evaluation by the teacher, involves meeting with each student and judging the notes. Consider a series of questions such as the ones listed below.

- How well do you think you understand the research format? Do you understand what information you are supposed to gather?
- How well can you classify information into the various categories?
- How would you evaluate your effort in the areas of
  —meeting the minimum required quantity of notes?
  —spending time on your research?
  —monitoring a variety of resources?

Additional note checks should be scheduled at regular intervals as research progresses.

Mock Legislature: Researching Issues

Lesson 8

Skills Focus

Searching
Gather, observe, and organize information from various sources

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions

Resource

"Tips for Writing Letters" (data sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Interviews are an excellent start for issue research. With prepared questions, they provide an overview of the issue, a focus on specifics, key questions for other positions, and ideas for further resources.
2. One information source is special interest groups, such as Mothers Against Drunk Driving and the National Rifle Association. In addition, offices of elected officials are willing to provide information to students investigating a specific issue. However, caution students about biased information from these and other special-interest groups. With the aid of the school librarian, students can find the addresses of these individuals and organizations. Another helpful resource, the *Encyclopedia of Associations*, usually found at the local library, lists most organizations in the United States. Listed by category, it provides summaries of services available, addresses, and other information.
3. Instruct students that they will write letters seeking information from various sources about their issue. If more than one student is assigned to a particular issue, each can write to a different organization or individual. To help students write a proper letter, have them consult the handout. Discuss the format and clarify when necessary.
4. Students' letters should get instructor approval. Students should supply an addressed, stamped envelope for the final copy. Allow students the remainder of the class period to work on the assignment, which is due the next day.
5. Remind students of the second note check and the minimum requirements.

Tips for Writing Letters

1. Use proper business letter form.
2. Address to a specific individual.
3. Identify yourself and your purpose for writing.
4. Request the specific information you need.
5. Thank readers for their efforts.
6. Type or write in ink on unlined paper.
7. Request the information by a specific date.
8. Use your own return address, not the school's.
9. Indicate that you are a student.

Sample Letter

Your Name
555 N. Pine Street
Waukesha, WI 53187

January 2, 1989

Mel Jones, Chairman
National Committee to
Repeal the 55-mph Speed Limit
310 Emelie Street
Collinsville, IL 62234

Dear Mr. Jones:

I am a student researching the 55-mph speed limit controversy. I am writing to your organization to request any information you have concerning the costs of the current law and other ways that the 55-mph speed limit may be harmful. I also would like to know how your organization would resolve the problems that led to imposing the 55-mph speed limit. What speed limit would your organization endorse? And how would that speed limit be better as far as costs and other factors go?

I hope I will be able to include the perspectives of the National Committee to Repeal the 55-mph Speed Limit in my paper. I am working under a deadline and will need any material you can send by February 14. Thank you for your assistance with my research.

Sincerely,

Your Name

Mock Legislature: Reporting on Issues

Lesson 9

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions
Brainstorm and share ideas

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups
Take turns, follow directions, and share responsibility

Resources

"Report Preparation" (data sheet included), "Outline Preparation" (data sheet included), "Tips for Presentations" (data sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Students will begin developing an informative report on their issue. This report will be presented to the class.
2. Have students assemble in their research committees. They should decide the organization of the report and who will present each part. Students should divide responsibility evenly. Suggest that students split the report by sections, for example: history, supporting arguments and solutions, opposing arguments, and so forth.
3. Once they have decided, have students exchange notes so each has the appropriate notes for his/here report section. Students should begin to review the notes.

Follow-up Lessons

Have students spend about the next six class periods preparing their presentations. Six days should leave students ample time to confer with the teacher as they confront problems. Distribute the handouts and discuss each, clarifying when necessary. Have students begin preparing their reports. Remind them that they should balance class time and homework time to complete the assignment.

Assemble students in their research committees. Students should practice their sections of the report. The others should time the presentation and offer constructive criticism. Have students make final modifications before presentations are given.

Report Preparation

Procedure For Preparing History Section

1. Read through all the notes from the Basic Problem section. From these notes decide which ones would be useful in describing the topic's importance and its effects. Place an "X" next to those statements that you believe will be useful.
2. Read through the notes from the Key Vocabulary section and decide which words need to be defined so the audience understands the report. Make a list of the words and their definitions. Divide them into two categories: words that should be defined at the beginning of your report and words to be defined during the report.
3. Read the Timeline sections and look for events essential to understanding the issue. Arrange these in a chronological list with enough information so the audience will understand the events and their significance. Consider using a graph or chart to illustrate the sequence of events.
4. Read the Current Situation sections and search for information relevant to your report. List this information under three categories: current laws, current bills, and other proposals. Depending on the issue, you may not find information in all three categories.
5. Move on to the "Outline Preparation" handout.

Procedure For Preparing Supporting and Opposing Sections

1. Read the notes marked with a "G" indicating they were general statements. From these, compose three to five general statements broadly stating a major argument, for example, "The 55-mph speed limit reduced traffic fatalities."
2. Number the new general statements and rewrite each on a separate sheet of paper.
3. Go through each note that you marked with an "S" and decide if it supports one of the general arguments identified above. If so, mark the statement with the corresponding number, for example, write "2" to indicate that it applies to Argument 2. Some statements may not be usable.
4. Rewrite the specific statements under the appropriate general statement, listing them in some logical order.
5. Read the Solutions. Try to identify about four major solutions. You may find several variations of a solution that are significant enough to separate. Rewrite each on a separate sheet of paper and number each sheet one.
6. Move on to the "Outline Preparation" handout.

Procedure for Preparing Report Graphics

1. Graphic aids and computer displays help present information more clearly. Computer programs provide excellent ways to show statistics and generate displays. Limit the number to one or two graphic aids, except for special cases. Decide what material would best be presented in graphic form.
2. Before making your final display, prepare a small sketch of it for approval. Indicate the actual size of the finished graphic and the colors you plan to use. Visual aids come in various forms including handmade displays, handouts, and computer charts. Make displays large enough and dark enough to be seen from a distance.
3. If you plan to present a graphic outside of this format, you should obtain prior approval.

Outline Preparation

1. Your report requires an outline of the major points to be covered. Arrange the information in the order you plan to present it. This outline will not be returned until after your report. Prepare a more detailed version as your own guide for your presentation. However you choose to present your report, remember that delivery is an important part of your grade.
2. Following the sample outline below and using your information from the previous activity, prepare your outline. Arrange the order of items in a logical pattern. You may want to add or eliminate information, but be complete. Remember, you are not going to have this outline from which to present your report. When finished, prepare a final version—a copy of this outline, a more detailed outline, a collection of notecards—to give your report.

Sample Outline

- I. Basic Problem
  - A. Most exceed 55 mph today
    - 1. Al Atchinson (Oklahoma) example
    - 2. 54.1 percent exceed 55 mph
  - B. Safety experts say it saves lives
    - 1. Saved 40,000 since its enactment
- II. Key Vocabulary
  - A. Federal appropriations
  - B. Radar detectors
- III. Timeline
  - A. 1973, 55 mph passed
  - B. 1986, limit repealed
- IV. Current Situation
  - A. Current status: 65 maximum speed
  - B. Proposals: Decrease speed in rural areas and on freeways
- V. Supporting Arguments
  - A. Saves gasoline
    - 1. 56 billion gallons since 1973
    - 2. Chart explaining dollars saved per states
- VI. Supporting Solutions
  - A. Resume 55-mph speed limit
  - B. Increase speeding penalties
  - C. Cut highway funds for noncompliance
- VII. Opposing Arguments
  - A. Time and money
    - 1. Increased speeding and law enforcement costs
    - 2. Freeways built to drive safely at 65-mph
- VIII. Opposing Solutions
  - A. Allow country roads to have 65-mph limit
  - B. Exempt freeways
- IX. Bill and Resolution Ideas
  - A. Statewide 55-mph speed limit
  - B. Cut highway funds to counties not complying
  - C. Increase speeding penalties

Tips For Presentations

Introduction

"My name is ____________________."

"The other committee members are ____________________."

"Our issue is ____________________."

"Our position statement reads ____________________."

Introducing Your Part of the Report

"I will be providing you with information in these areas: ____________________."

Introducing Specific Areas

"First, I would like to explain the basic problem behind our issue."

"This timeline presents a brief history of the major events surrounding this issue."

"Several key vocabulary words need clarification so that our report is more understandable ."

"The current status of laws or bills regarding this issue is as follows."

"I will present three major arguments and two popular solutions supporting the position.

Transitions

"Next, I would like to talk about ____________________."

Conclusions

"This concludes my section of the report. ____________________ will now continue with our presentation."

"This concludes our report on the issue of ____________________."

Mock Legislature: Reporting on Issues

Lesson 10

Skills Focus

Social Judgment
Make reasoned, ethical decisions and value positions
Evaluate social consequences

Decision Making
Balance choices and their consequences

Suggested Procedure

1. Students will write a one-page position paper on their issue. These papers will be duplicated and distributed to the other students before the debate sessions of the mock legislature. The papers should stimulate discussion and seek support.
2. Each paper must contain the following:
   - An opening statement expressing the position on the issue.
   - Ideas, reasons, facts, and details supporting the stand on this issue.
   - A concluding statement aimed at persuading others to support the position.
3. Students will compose the paper through a series of writing activities focused on producing a quality product. Remind students of the one-page—typed or handwritten—limit.
4. Ask students to think about the various sides of their issue. Tell them to consider which side they favor (they can always change their mind). Ask them to write down as many reasons, facts, examples, and details they can recall from their report to support this stand.
5. Guide students through a free-writing activity with the following steps:
   - Tell them that for seven minutes they are to write down as many ideas as they can to answer this question. The only rule is that they must keep writing.
   - Tell them to keep writing their last word over and over if they get stuck.
   - Time their writing. They should have a pretty good start on a rough draft, which is due the next day.

Follow-up Lesson

In groups of three or four, students will run an editing workshop. Have them read each others' rough drafts and offer constructive criticism. All comments should be stated in the positive. After all papers have been considered by the group, students should make changes to improve the quality of their paper. Students could complete the final draft during the next class period.

Mock Legislature: Writing Legislation

Lesson 11

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions

Social Judgment
Apply reasoning in the application of rules, laws, and principles

Resources

"Bills and Resolutions" (data sheet included), "Nobody in the Hall Without a Pass" (activity sheet included), "Gubernatorial Campaign Instructions" (data sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Students will begin three days of activities culminating with each committee writing a bill or resolution. These measures will express the majority opinion on the issue they researched.
2. Distribute the "Bills and Resolutions" handout and discuss it. Be sure to clarify the similarities between bills and resolutions.
3. Distribute the activity sheet. Read the opening paragraph and clarify as necessary. Discuss each question before students move on to the next.
4. Announce the gubernatorial election. Students will elect a governor who will sign or veto the bills and resolutions the class passes into law. Distribute the handout that explains the election process. Have students start the political process during the remainder of the class period. If necessary, allow the students an additional class period to form their political parties..

Bills and Resolutions

1. Both intent sections deal with a problem the legislature wishes to solve. Both letter sections offer a proposed solution for the problem.
2. Constitutionality: The bill or resolution must abide by the Constitution.
3. Need: Bills and resolutions should be necessary, and the sponsors should demonstrate the need for this legislation.
4. Bills and resolutions usually help somebody, but sometimes harm others. The overall harm versus the overall good of a bill or resolution must be balanced.

Format of a Bill

Intent

The purpose of this bill is to

1. ________________________
2. ________________________
3. ________________________
4. ________________________

Letter

Be it enacted that

1. ________________________
2. ________________________
3. ________________________
4. ________________________
5. ________________________
6. ________________________
7. ________________________
8. ________________________

1. Definition: A bill is an idea for a new law, which, if passed, will create a change in the status quo.
2. Intent Section: This section defines the goals of the bill. These purposes do not become the law itself, but help people understand why the bill is being proposed.
3. Letter Section: This section states how the goals of the bill will be accomplished. This part becomes the law if it is passed. This section sometimes contains so-called loopholes that allow people to by-pass the law; they may or may not be intentional. The lines are numbered for reference purposes.

Format of a Resolution

Intent

1. Whereas____________________
2. Whereas____________________
3. Whereas____________________
4. Whereas____________________

Letter

Therefore be it resolved that

1. ________________________
2. ________________________
3. ________________________
4. ________________________
5. ________________________
6. ________________________
7. ________________________
8. ________________________

1. Definition: A resolution expresses majority opinions or attitudes. There are several different types of resolutions. The resolutions used here will express the opinions or attitudes of the legislature and the elected executive.
2. Intent Section: Defines the reasons that the resolution is being written. Like the intent of a bill, it explains why the resolution is being proposed.
3. Letter Section: States the attitudes or opinions the sponsors wish to express. Lines are numbered for reference purposes.

Nobody in the Hall Without a Pass

The students at Central High School are given a student handbook at the beginning of each school year. One section titled "Rules" begins: "The following rules will be enforced in order to maintain an educational environment at Central High." Rule 5a states: "Nobody is permitted in the hall without a pass." Answer the following questions:

1. What, specifically, is the intent of rule 5a?

2. What, specifically, is the letter of rule 5a?

3. Read the following cases and identify which are violations of the intent of rule 5a and which are violations of the letter of rule 5a:

    a. A student leaves the sixth-hour social studies class with a bloody nose and rushes to the health room without stopping to get a pass.

    b. The fire alarm rings during first hour. All students pile out into the hall without thinking to get a pass.

    c. A third-hour student gets halfway to class and rushes back to her locker for a forgotten assignment, but the bell rings as she is opening the locker.

    d. Jason decides to see if he can catch a glimpse of his friend in art class instead of going to his scheduled lunch hour.

4. How can rule 5a be changed to better reflect its intent?

Gubernatorial Campaign Instructions

The class needs to form at least two political parties. These parties will organize and run election campaigns supporting their candidates for governor.

To become a gubernatorial candidate a student must form a political party by collecting signatures from a minimum of 20 percent of the class. Once students sign petitions supporting a particular candidate, they automatically become members of that party. Students not joining a party will remain independents. If two candidacies do not emerge, either the 20 percent rule will be waived or the teacher may choose two candidates and select political parties.

Once a party is organized a party platform must be written. This is the responsibility of the candidate and should be a paragraph describing the party's position on each issue before the mock legislature. This document should reflect the majority view of the party members. In addition, each party must choose a name. Campaigns should include posters, ads in the school newspaper, and announcements. On election day, a debate between all candidates will be held prior to voting.

Selecting a Party Name. Each candidate must obtain approval of a name for his/her party before beginning his/her campaign.

Platforms. Each party must submit a party platform stating the party's stand on each of the issues in the mock legislature. The stand on each issue should be clearly stated in one paragraph and the issues should be listed in order of importance to the party.

Posters. Political parties are allowed to post campaign posters in all approved areas of the school. Posters must meet the following requirements:

- Size: 18" x 24" maximum
- Slogans: Must be politically significant and not slander other candidates
- Identification: Must list the candidate's name and party affiliation

Other Announcements. Students may deliver announcements on designated days through the school's daily announcements. All announcements will be restricted to 20 seconds and must be approved by a teacher. In addition, students may run ads in the school newspaper. These ads must also be approved by a teacher.

Mock Legislature: Writing Legislation

Lesson 12

Skills Focus

Social Judgment
Apply reasoning to seek justice in the application of rules, laws, and principles

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups
Listen to and be considerate of people's contributions and points of view

Resources

"Format for Bills" (data sheet included), "Format for Resolutions" (data sheet included), "Legislation Writing Instructions" (activity sheet included), bill and resolution forms (included).

Suggested Procedure

1. Tell students that candidates for governor must have their information turned in and approved by the end of the next class period.
2. Over the next two days students will write a bill or resolution expressing the majority of the committee members' views on their issue.
3. Distribute the handouts. Discuss the instructions.
4. In their committees, students should begin the assignment. Remind them of their position paper assignment that stated their views and their reasons. They can use those ideas as a good starting point for writing legislation.

Format Instructions for Writing Bills

Intent

- In this section, four goals of the new law are stated. The goals should answer the question: "What do we want the bill to accomplish?"
- Your statements of intent should focus on the effects the bill will have on the problem and/or its causes.
- Each stated purpose should begin with the imperative verb form. Some verbs you may want to use are:
  - —Provide
  - —Encourage
  - —Save
  - —Punish
  - —End
  - —Convince
  - —Preserve
  - —Compensate
- Be concise. You are limited to the amount of space available.

Letter

- This section details how the new law will accomplish all the goals described above.
- These details should give directions concerning
  - —compliance with the law
  - —the penalty for violating it
  - —enforcement of the law
  - —funding to implement the law
  - —where the proceeds from fines will go
  - —the date the law takes effect

Sample Bill

Issue: **The 55-mph Speed Limit**

Sponsors:

1. Senator Anne Smith
2. Representative John Johnson
3. Representative Ron Jones

Intent

The purpose of this bill is to

1. save human lives;
2. reduce the number of spinal cord injuries;
3. conserve gasoline; and
4. force states to enforce the 55-mph speed limit.

Letter

Be it enacted that

The maximum allowable posted speed limit on any road in Wisconsin not exceed 55 mph. Counties must demonstrate that they are taking adequate measures to enforce the 55-mph speed limit. The methods of enforcement must be approved by the Wisconsin Department of Transportation by January 1990. Any additional monies necessary to set up this program will be provided by individual counties. Counties found not complying with this law by January 1990 will lose all of their state highway funds for each year, or any part of each year, that they fail to comply. The money lost by these counties will be redistributed to those counties that are in compliance. The Wisconsin Department of Transportation will enforce this law. This law is to go into effect June 30, 1989.

Format for Resolutions

Intent

- This is the "Whereas" section. Remember that whereas means "because."
- This section lists reasons for the attitudes and opinions you will express in the letter of the resolution. Each reason starts with "Whereas" and ends with a semicolon and an "and" except the last, which ends with a period.
- Some reasons you may want to express are listed below:
  - —Examples and evidence of how serious the problem is.
  - —Some of the causes of the problem.
- Be concise and write small if necessary. You are limited by the amount of space available.

Letter

- This section states the position you are taking.
- The attitude or opinion may state one of two things.
  - —The status quo (present condition) is just fine. In fact, the situation should not change.
  - —The people, or government, should do _______________ to change the status quo.

Sample Resolution

Issue: **The 55-mph Speed Limit**

Sponsors:
1. Senator Anne Smith
2. Representative John Johnson
3. Representative Ron Jones

Intent
1. Whereas the 55-mph speed limit saves lives; and
2. Whereas the limit reduces spinal cord injuries; and
3. Whereas the limit conserves gasoline; and
4. Whereas states need to enforce the limit.

Letter
Therefore, be it resolved that
1. That this group believes that the 55-mph speed limit should become law in all states.
2. The United States Congress should pass laws requiring that all states strictly enforce a
3. 55-mph speed limit. Congress should penalize states that do not strictly enforce the limit
4. with the loss of all federal highway funding. Congress should reward states that do
5. comply by giving them monies lost by the states in noncompliance.

Legislation Writing Instructions

Your committee will draft a bill or resolution expressing the group's position. Members who disagree with the position will submit a minority report. The final versions are due at the end of your next class.

Procedure

1. Debate the group's position on the issue and take a vote. In case of a tie vote, a coin flip could determine the majority position.
2. Determine the type of legislation to write—a bill or a resolution. If you do not agree with the position of the majority you must submit a minority report listing your reasons for opposing the majority.
3. Write a draft on your own paper of the bill, resolution, or minority report as a group. Remember, you have a limited amount of space. Everyone should contribute to the writing. Make sure that you refer to the format sheets for instructions and the samples on how to write a bill and resolution.
4. After writing the draft, submit it for approval.
5. Once you obtain teacher approval, you will be given a form to prepare your final copy. Remember to write only on the numbered lines if you are preparing a bill or resolution.

Minority Report

Issue: ______________________________

Submitted By: ______________________________

I oppose the majority bill/resolution on this issue for the following reasons:

1. ______________________________
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________
4. ______________________________
5. ______________________________

Thus, I request that the committee consider issuing a clean bill that:

1. ______________________________
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________
4. ______________________________
5. ______________________________

A Bill

Title: ____________________

Issue: ____________________

Sponsors: 1. __________ 3. __________
2. __________ 4. __________

Intent
The purpose of this bill is to

1. ____________________
2. ____________________
3. ____________________
4. ____________________

Letter
Be it enacted that

1. ____________________
2. ____________________
3. ____________________
4. ____________________
5. ____________________
6. ____________________
7. ____________________
8. ____________________
9. ____________________
10. ____________________
11. ____________________
12. ____________________

A Resolution

Title: ______________________________

Issue: ______________________________

Sponsors: 1. ______________ 3. ______________
2. ______________ 4. ______________

Intent

1. Whereas ____; and
2. Whereas ____; and
3. Whereas ____; and
4. Whereas ____

Letter
Therefore, be it resolved that

1. ____
2. ____
3. ____
4. ____
5. ____
6. ____
7. ____
8. ____
9. ____
10. ____
11. ____
12. ____

Mock Legislature: Legislative Session

Lesson 13

Skills Focus

Communicating
Present knowledge and ideas in a variety of forms
Listen carefully, and ask questions

Resource

Wisconsin Blue Book

Suggested Procedure

1. Briefly review the legislative process to increase student understanding of the simulation. The *Wisconsin Blue Book* provides an excellent reference for this information. Also consult the unit "How a Bill Becomes a Law," found earlier in this section.
2. Cover these points.

   - assembly
   - senate
   - legislature terms and sessions
   - types and functions of committees
   - types of bills and resolutions
   - how a bill becomes a law

3. Research committees will present reports and propose bills and resolutions in joint (senate/assembly) hearings. Each presentation should be half-a-period long. The number of class periods will vary depending on the number of committees. Remember only half of the committees will present their reports since the legislative session calls for two rounds.
4. Students should take notes and formulate questions for the upcoming debates; all discussion should be reserved for that time.

Mock Legislature: Parliamentary Procedure

Lesson 14

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully and ask questions

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups

Resources

"Parliamentary Rules" (data sheet and study guide included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Tell students they will need some basic knowledge on parliamentary procedure before they begin floor debate in the mock legislature.
2. Distribute the data sheet. Discuss and clarify each point. Students will need this handout throughout the floor debate.
3. Distribute the study guide. Have students refer to their sample bill on the 55-mph speed limit from Lesson 12. Have students work through each statement and discuss the correct procedure before moving on to the next.

Parliamentary Rules

When the assembly and/or senate meet, students will sit in standing committees. Each committee will receive a packet of bills and resolutions written by the research committees. The teacher, serving as the presiding officer, will run each session.

Call to order

Old business

- Finish work from the previous session.

Normal order for considering new proposals

- Clerk, a designated student, reads the original bill or resolution and, when necessary, minority report.
- The standing committee reports any changes and amendments to the original legislation. Other standing committees record changes on their copies. If a clean bill or resolution was written, it is distributed.
- Sponsors of the original measure (research committee) respond to the changes and address the need for the legislation.
- Minority report sponsor presents opinion.
- The bill or resolution is now open for discussion by all members.
  - —Questions may be asked for clarification.
  - —Opinions may be expressed.
  - —Amendments and changes may be proposed.
  - —Motions may be made to vote, adjourn, and so forth.

Rules for amendments

- Amendments are phrased: "I move we amend line(s)______ to read ______."
- Every proposed amendment needs a second, phrased: "I second." Without a second, the amendment fails.
- Once seconded, the amendment is open for discussion. Nothing else about the legislation may be discussed until the legislature votes on the amendment.
- An amendment may be added to or changed as follows:
  - —Amendment to the amendment alters the original amendment. These also need a second.
  - —Friendly amendment asks the original amendment's sponsor to consider a slight change. No second is needed, but the sponsor can refuse.

Rules for motions

- A motion is stated "I move we . . ." It must be seconded.

Other essentials

- No person may speak unless recognized by the presiding officer or chairperson.
- Point of information—if you do not understand something, call out: "Point of information."
- Point of order—if proper procedure is not being followed, call out: "Point of order."

How Well Can You Speak Parliamentary English?

You are on the floor of the assembly considering a measure on the 55-mph speed limit. How do you accomplish the following?

1. You want to change the amount of money counties lose for not complying to 50 percent.
2. You want to vote on that amendment.
3. You want to determine what the previous speaker said because you did not understand.
4. In an amendment, you want to move the effective date of the bill to 1991.
5. You want to extend the date by six months.
6. You want to remove any reference to the state Department of Transportation.
6. An amendment is proposed and discussion begins immediately but without a second.
7. You are tired of discussing the bill and want to vote on it.

Mock Legislature: Legislative Session

Lesson 15

Skills Focus

Group Participation

Share responsibility, be considerate of others, and show enthusiasm for the task

Social Judgment

Relate past and present, cause and consequence
Apply reasoning to rules, laws, and principles
Make fiscal and environmental assessments
Arrive at reasoned, ethical decisions and evaluate their social consequences

Resources

"Standing Committee Instructions" (data sheet included), "Legislation Checklist" (activity sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Appoint students to standing committees. Standing committees approve, amend, or rewrite bills for legislative floor debate. For each research committee, establish two standing committees, one in each house. The standing committee assignments are for both rounds of legislation. To provide variety, assign students to committees that will handle issues other than those they researched.
2. Distribute the handouts. Discuss and clarify as necessary.
3. Each standing committee should designate a chairperson. Students will sit in these committees during the floor debate. Committees will revise and submit one piece of legislation based on the measures introduced by the research committees in each legislative session. The two rounds should allow full consideration of the measures from the committees.
4. Distribute copies of the initial legislation drafted by the research committees to the corresponding standing committee.
5. Allow students the remainder of the class period and the next period to finish the assignment.

Standing Committee Instructions

Your standing committee will present a bill or resolution to the assembly or senate. The legislation you submit should be the legislation you want the legislature to pass. If your committee has to change legislation completely to reflect the committee's opinions, then a clean bill or resolution should be written. However, only simple revisions within the existing legislation may satisfy the committee. Decisions are made by majority rule; in cases of ties the chairperson decides.

Procedure

1. Read the legislation for an overview of its intent. You may need to summon the original sponsors for clarification.
2. Read the minority report, if one has been submitted, for an overview of that position. Again, summon the author for clarification.
3. Referring to the checklist, review "Literal Evaluation." Read the legislation again and complete the "Literal Evaluation."
4. Review "Content Evaluation." Read the legislation again and complete the checklist.
5. If a minority report was submitted, read it and answer number 15.
6. Revise the legislation based on the committee's conclusions. DO NOT make any revisions until you have completed ALL the evaluation items. Minority reports do not require revision; they were submitted to make you aware of an opposing viewpoint. Remember that the committee can adopt the minority view and use it as the basis for a clean measure.
7. If you decide to write a clean bill, obtain the proper form and write "Clean" at the top.
8. If you are revising the original legislation, make a list of the changes your committee has made.
9. Decide who will be the spokesperson for your committee.

Legislation Checklist

Mark each item with one of the following symbols:

P—indicates the legislation has a problem in the area.

OK—indicates approval in the area.

Literal Evaluation—The basic communication of the legislation.

1. _____ Mechanics—spelling, punctuation, syntax, capitalization, sentence structure. Lines with problems: ____________________
2. _____ Does the letter of the legislation accurately reflect the intent? If they deal with two different areas there is a problem. Lines with problems: ____________________
3. _____ (Resolution) Are the opinions and attitudes within the letter clearly stated? Will the legislature understand its meaning? Lines with problems: ____________________
4. _____ (Resolution) Is it clear what the people or government should or should not do? Lines with problems: ____________________
5. _____ (Bill) Does the bill actually propose a change in the current situation? Lines with problems: ____________________
6. _____ (Bill) Is compliance with (or violation of) the proposal clearly defined? Lines with problems: ____________________
7. _____ (Bill) Are penalties for violations defined?
8. _____ (Bill) Does it state who will enforce the law?
9. _____ (Bill) Does the bill earmark the necessary money to implement and enforce the legislation?
10. _____ (Bill) Does the bill state where money from fines will go?

Content Evaluation—The meaning and purpose of new legislation.

11. _____ Does the legislation appear to be constitutional?
12. _____ (Bill) Is the new law needed?
13. _____ Will the good achieved by this legislation clearly outweigh any bad effects it will cause?
14. _____ Does the legislation represent the views or the committee's majority? Does the bill propose changes agreeable to the majority?
15. _____ (Minority report) Does the minority report better represent the views of the committee?

Committee Recommendations

Would minor changes in the legislation merit your endorsement of the legislation? If yes, revise the legislation to suit your needs. Record the changes below. If no, write a clean bill or resolution.

Mock Legislature: Legislative Session

Lesson 16

Skills Focus

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups
Listen to and be considerate of people's contributions and points of view

Suggested Procedure

1. Arrange the classroom in two horseshoe-shaped patterns—one Senate and one Assembly—with desks clustered together in standing committees. In the front of the room the presiding officer (teacher) should sit at a podium.
2. Distribute legislative packets to each committee. Have students refer to their parliamentary rules handout. This first session should focus only on legislation from committees that reported during the first round of presentations. The schedule calls for consideration of and a vote on two pieces of legislation per day; however, students may spend longer on some legislation, while quickly finishing others. Plan on at least two days for this exercise.
3. Debate occurs at two levels, general and specific. At the general level, the debate focuses on aspects of the larger issue. Here, the students should raise questions, express opinions, cite examples, relate stories and so forth. At the specific level, they should shape the legislation to reflect their particular views. The specific level, however, should not dominate the discussion because the debate often becomes very literal. Encourage students to modify a piece of legislation rather than quickly defeating it.
4. For grading, note each time a student makes a significant contribution to the debate. After each session, construct a grading scale based on a frequency curve. This helps ensure that everyone gets involved in the debate and gives you an objective basis for grading.

Follow-up Lessons

At this point, students should be ready to tackle the next batch of legislation. Going back to Lesson 13, have the remaining research committees present their reports and proposals before continuing the legislative process.

After the second round, hold the gubernatorial elections. The ballots could also list referendum questions for unresolved legislation. Also consider staging a debate before the election; other class members or the committees could formulate questions for the candidates.

Mock Legislature: Legislative Session

Lesson 17

Skills Focus

Group Participation
Draw on experiences, contribute ideas, and solve problems
Listen to and be considerate of people's contributions and points of view

Searching
Develop, consider, and evaluate alternatives

Resources

"Conference Committee Instructions" (data sheet included), "Compromise Legislation" (activity sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Students are at one of the final and most difficult steps of the legislative process, writing compromise bills and resolutions. The conference committee stage of legislation, designed to involve members of both houses, resolves differences between bills passed by each house.
2. Match up standing committees from the assembly with those in the senate to form conference committees. Since each research committee had members from both houses and introduced the same legislation on both sides, the compromise process should be easy. Assign each committee two pieces of legislation to forge a compromise. With some planning, standing committees that correspond can deal with the same two pieces of legislation. For example, an assembly committee could have handled abortion and handgun control; and the corresponding senate committee could have dealt with the same issues. Now, as a conference committee they can work out compromise bills on the same two issues.
3. Assemble students in conference committees and distribute the handouts; discuss and clarify. Students should have until the end of the next day to complete both their compromises.
4. In actual legislatures, only the bills and resolutions that pass both sides go to a conference committee. In the mock legislature, however, consider bending this rule to allow all legislation, regardless of the vote, to go through this step. If so, make sure students know about the change.

Conference Committee Instructions

Conference committees made of members from the senate and assembly, meet to work out a compromise on a particular bill or resolution. A compromise must be reached so that the same legislation may be presented to both the senate and the assembly for final passage or defeat. Once compromise legislation emerges from a conference committee it cannot be amended, only debated and voted on. The lines of the form are numbered for reference purposes.

Procedure

1. Read the two amended versions of the legislation.
2. Discuss and list points of agreement between the two versions.
3. Work out a compromise that can be supported by all members of the committee, called a consensus.
4. Write the compromise legislation on the form provided.

Compromise Legislation

Title: ______________________________

Issue: ______________________________

Conference Committee Members:

1. ____________ 3. ____________
2. ____________ 4. ____________

Intent

1. ____
2. ____
3. ____
4. ____

Letter

1. ____
2. ____
3. ____
4. ____
5. ____
6. ____
7. ____
8. ____
9. ____
10. ____
11. ____
12. ____

Mock Legislature: Legislative Session

Lesson 18

Skills Focus

Group Participation

Contribute to discussion in large and small groups

Social Judgment

Apply fiscal and environmental assessments

Make commitments, exercise rights, and exert influence in a responsible manner

Arrive at reasoned, ethical decisions and evaluate their social consequences

Suggested Procedure

1. Have the assembly and senate meet separately to hear, debate, and vote on the compromise bills and resolutions. Cover half the legislation each day using this procedure:
    - Arrange students in standing committees and distribute legislation packets to each committee.
    - Read each compromise bill or resolution or assign the task to a house clerks.
    - Call for the conference committee to summarize how it arrived at its version of legislation and the major differences from the original.
    - Open the floor for debate. Remind students that no amendments may be made; students may only vote to pass or defeat the legislation.
    - The governor should observe and not vote.
2. Compromise legislation passed by both houses is sent to the governor for a signature or veto. In either case, the governor must explain the reasons behind the decisions. All compromise legislation should be considered by the end of the next class period. Governors must have compromise legislation signed or vetoed in the next two days. In the spirit of the Wisconsin Constitution, line item vetoes may be allowed.

Follow-up Lesson

Have the governors deliver presentations regarding their actions on the final legislation. In cases of a veto, a two-thirds vote is needed in both houses to override it.

Activities: Funding of Government

School Board Budget
State Budget
Partial Veto
Economic Climate

School Board Budget

This unit provides students with an excellent opportunity to experience political decision-making. This simulation, unlike most others, allows students to work with a situation they know something about—their own school. All the background information necessary to any good simulation is supplied by the students themselves. Lesson 2 involves inviting a school board member to address the class. The invitation should be sent well in advance so the member has time to prepare

Lesson 1

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions

Social Judgment
Apply fiscal analysis and social assessment
Recognize bias, emotion, and motivation

Decision Making
Balance choices and their consequences

Resources

"Budget Cutting Simulation" (data sheet and activity sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Distribute the handouts. Discuss and clarify the material.
2. Assign students to groups of three or four. Tell students the best way to make group decisions is to have every member participate in the process. Members should use preliminary decisions to formulate the group's final choice.
3. Have groups prepare questions they want to ask the school board member during Lesson 2.
4. Allow students the remainder of time to begin the assignment, which is due the next day.

Budget Cutting Simulation

Your Role

You are an elected member of the local school board. You must make difficult decisions and justify them to the people who elected you.

You have been supplied with a copy of the school budget for all interscholastic, intrascholastic, and extra-curricular activities offered at this school. Other essential information (gender, grade level, number of participants, and cost) also is included. The school budget must be cut by 40 percent to keep the district running.

The budget totals $20,507. You will have to cut $8,203. Cuts can be made in all three areas. However, you may not reduce an activity; it must either be kept or cut entirely. On the form, list the activities cut, the number of students affected, the cost of the activity, and your reasons for cutting it.

G = *Girls only* B = *Boys only* C = *Coed*

Activity	Grade	Number of Students	Cost
Interscholastic			
Football (B)	9	40	$2,188
Football (B)	8	60	1,459
Wrestling (B)	7, 8, 9	25	1,641
Basketball (B)	9	15	1094
Basketball (G)	9	15	1094
Volleyball (G)	9	20	729
Track (C)	9	60	1,185
			$9,390
Intrascholastic			
Track (C)	7, 8	50	$2,005
Basketball (B)	8	50	729
Basketball (G)	8	50	729
Basketball (B)	7	50	729
Basketball (G)	7	50	729
Softball (C)	7, 8, 9	70	456
			$5,377
Extra-Curricular			
Student Council (C)	7, 8, 9	50	$1,094
Band (Evening Concerts) (C)	7, 8, 9	80	912
Orchestra (Evening Concerts) (C)	7, 8, 9	120	729
Chorus (Evening Concerts) (C)	7, 8, 9	50	729
School Newspaper (C)	7, 8, 9	15	547
Cheerleading (C)	9	18	364
Drama Club (C)	7, 8, 9	15	273
Chess Club (C)	7, 8, 9	15	273
Computer Club (C)	7, 8, 9	20	273
Ski Club (C)	7, 8, 9	40	273
Martial Arts Club (C)	7, 8, 9	15	273
			$5,740
		Total	$20,507

Budget Cutting Simulation

Activity	No. of Std.	Cost	Reasons

Total:

School Board Budget

Lesson 2

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, ask questions, and share ideas

Social Judgment
Apply fiscal analysis and social assessment
Recognize bias, emotion, and motivation

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups
Listen to and be considerate of people's contributions and points of view

Decision Making
Balance choices and consequences

Suggested Procedure

1. Introduce the school board member to the students. Ask the board member to cover a list of questions in his/her opening remarks. Questions might include the following:

   - What is a school board?
   - How does one become a member?
   - What are the responsibilities of a board member?
   - How does the board make decisions?
   - What is involved in committee tasks?
   - What would constitute full board work?

   In addition, the board member might be asked to work through the simulation.
2. After the presentation, allow students time to ask questions. Someone should write a letter of appreciation to the guest speaker.
3. Have the groups from Lesson 1 reassemble. Tell them that they are acting as a committee of the school board and will present recommendations on budget cuts to the full board in Lesson 4. Groups must reach consensus on the items cut to meet the 40 percent mandate. Distribute to each group another budget cutting form from Lesson 1. This form is for the groups' final decisions.
4. Allow the students the remainder of the class to begin working on the assignment. If the board member is willing, have the member circulate among the groups to answer questions.

School Board Budget

Lesson 3

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions

Social Judgment
Apply fiscal analysis and social assessment
Recognize bias, emotion, and motivation

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups
Listen to and be considerate of people's contributions and points of view

Decision Making
Balance choices and consequences

Suggested Procedure

1. Have the spokesperson from each group present the recommendations. If possible, distribute copies to each student. After each presentation, allow time for questions.
2. Have the students vote on what they believe is the best plan. Consider inviting other teachers, administrators, or board members to vote on the final plan.
3. Discuss the vote and the solutions. Focus on the following issues: reasons for the cuts, possible bias in the decisions, other choices not taken, and student interests versus school board interests.

State Budget: An Overview

The information in this unit was provided by Mike McCabe of the Wisconsin Taxpayers Alliance in Madison, Wisconsin. The lessons should provide students with an excellent understanding of the state budgetary process. Students should be able to apply this knowledge while working through several budget-related issues, enabling them to understand the various philosophies behind fiscal policy.

Lesson 1

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions
Read for meaning

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups

Resources

"The Wisconsin State Budget" (reading, data sheet, and study guide included), *Wisconsin Blue Book*

Suggested Procedure

1. To introduce the topic, ask the students several basic questions about the budget. Questions might include

   - How large is the state budget?
   - Where does the state get its money?
   - What is the biggest expense for the state?

2. The budget information comes in a short narrative, which can be used for a lecture or assigned for independent reading. In addition, six charts and a 15-question study guide should offer students a clear understanding of the state budget. This topic may require more than one lesson depending on how the materials are used.
3. More specific information to expand the lesson may be found in the *Wisconsin Blue Book*.

The Wisconsin State Budget

Revenue Categories

The Wisconsin state budget for 1987-88 totaled $9.8 billion (Chart 1). This amount in $1 bills stacked on top of each other would stretch 1,200 miles into space. The budget can be split into major categories according to revenue sources.

The largest category, the general purpose revenue (GPR) budget totaled $5.3 billion or 54 percent of the total 1987 budget. This part of the budget is financed by general taxes, such as income and sales taxes, and used for general purposes. A general tax is not earmarked for one specific service. Rather, they fund a vast array of state services, from building highways to higher education. Because it is the largest component of state spending and is financed by general taxes, the GPR budget receives the most attention.

The next category, the special-purpose revenue budget, consists of three parts (Chart 1). This portion of the budget employs user fees (as opposed to general taxes) to finance government services. User fees include taxes on the sale of specific items and license fees.

The first part, the program revenues budget, is financed by charges such as tuition, dormitory fees, and food service receipts at the University of Wisconsin and by other charges for state services.

The second part, the federal revenues budget, allocates federal funds for medical assistance, aid to families with dependent children (AFDC), the University of Wisconsin System, and other federally funded programs.

The third part, the segregated funds budget, provides services in specific areas. The gasoline tax, for example, accounts for the transportation fund used to finance highway construction and maintenance and other transportation programs. Fishing and hunting license fees are placed in the conservation fund used to finance recreation and conservation programs.

A Closer Analysis of the GPR Budget

The GPR budget can be split into three categories based on purpose: state operations, aid to individuals and organizations, and local government assistance (Chart 2).

State operations covers services provided directly by state agencies. The University of Wisconsin System and the correctional system account for the biggest chunk of this category.

Aid to individuals and organizations consists of direct payments to or on behalf of individuals, mainly for medical or welfare purposes, such as medical assistance (sometimes called Medicaid), AFDC, and the homestead tax credit program.

Local assistance represents payments by the state to municipalities, counties, local schools, and vocational school districts. These, plus property tax credits, are the major forms of local assistance. Since state aid pays a significant percentage of the cost of local services, thereby reducing reliance on local property tax, local assistance payments are commonly called property tax relief. Perhaps because of the politically attractive term, property tax relief is the largest and fastest-growing part of the GPR budget.

Fiscal Relationship Between State and Local Government

The term state budget is somewhat misleading. A majority of GPR spending actually represents money returned to local governments in the form of direct support or property tax relief. While the state collects 69 percent of state and local tax revenues, local units of government spend 70 percent of these revenues (Chart 3).

Individual income taxes and the sales tax represent the two main sources for state tax revenues. In 1986 income taxes accounted for 26 percent of state revenues, and sales taxes accounted for 18 percent (Chart 5). Property tax, the major local tax source, accounts for 98 percent of all locally raised revenue.

On the spending side, education leads expenses, followed by health and welfare programs (Chart 6). Spending for K-12 public schools is a big-ticket item. Vocational schools and the University of Wisconsin System account for the remaining education outlays. Health and welfare expenditures include AFDC, general relief, and Medicaid, which often pays for nursing home care.

Two other major spending categories are highways and public safety (police and fire protection and correctional services). The other category includes snow removal, garbage collection, parks and recreation, environmental programs, libraries, and a variety of other services.

Chart 1
Total State Budget, 1987-88

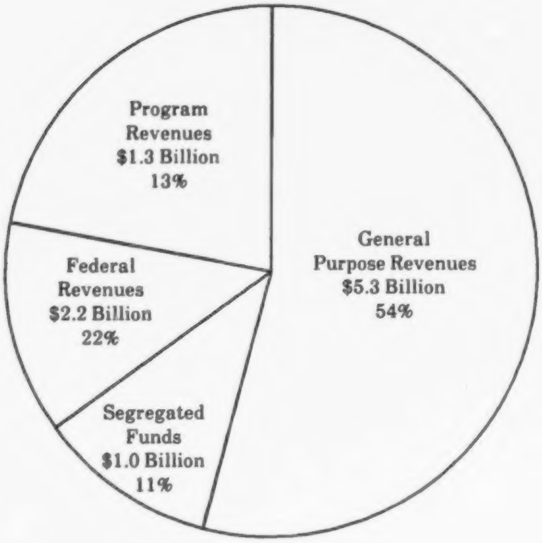
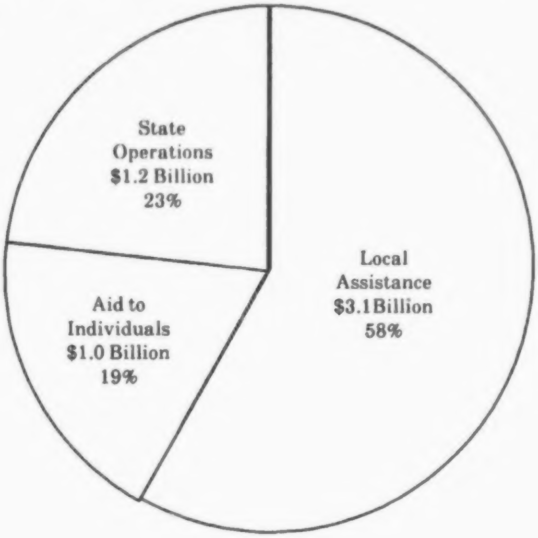


Chart 2
State General Purpose Revenue (GPR) Budget, 1987-88



Source: Wisconsin Taxpayers Alliance, Madison, Wisconsin.

Chart 3
State and Local Tax Revenues
Proportion Collected

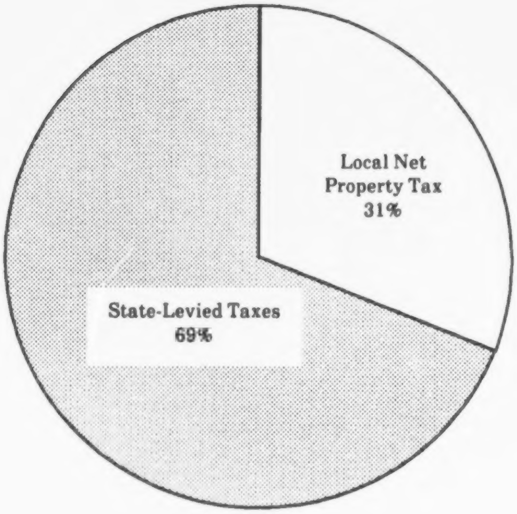
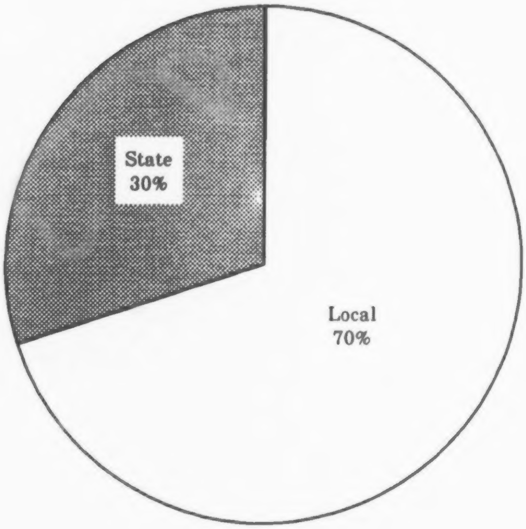
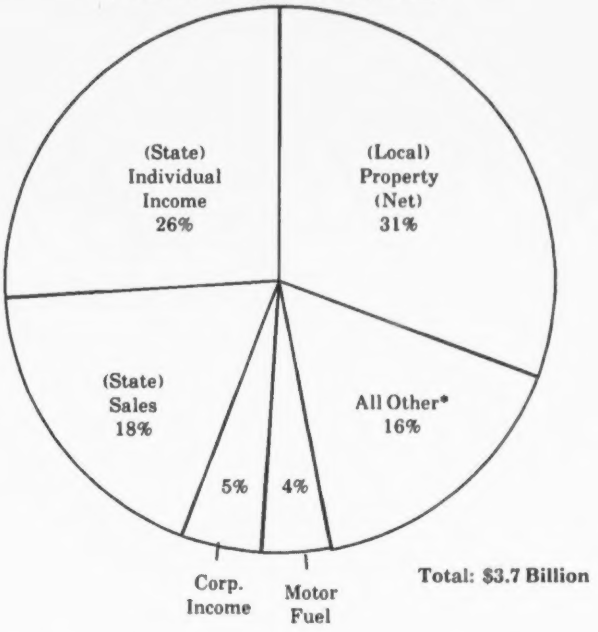


Chart 4
State and Local Expenditures
Proportion Spent



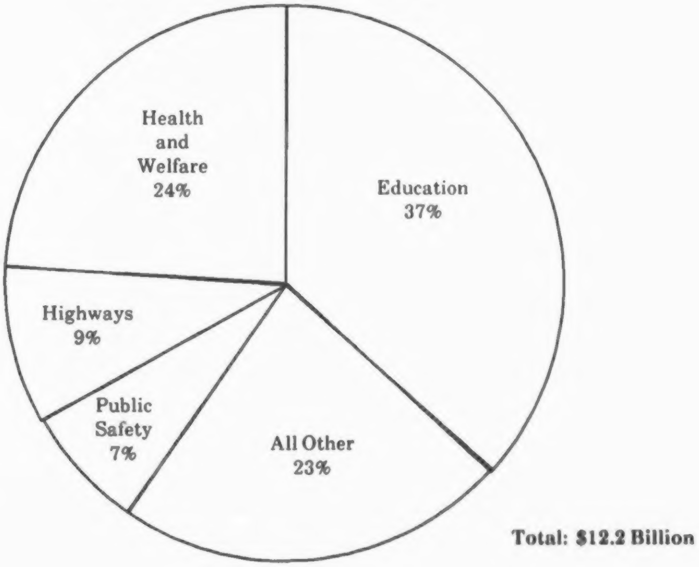
Source: Wisconsin Taxpayers Alliance, Madison, Wisconsin.

Chart 5
Sources of Wisconsin State and Local Taxes
(Year Ending June 30, 1986)



*Includes special excise taxes, public utility taxes, unemployment compensation taxes, inheritance and gift taxes, insurance premiums taxes and other taxes, motor vehicle registrations and drivers' licenses, and conservation licenses and registrations.

Chart 6
Wisconsin State and Local Expenditures
(Year Ending June 30, 1986)



Source: Wisconsin Taxpayers Alliance, Madison, Wisconsin.

The Wisconsin State Budget

1. What is the total 1987-88 Wisconsin state budget?

2. What are the two major sources of state revenues? What percent of the budget does each account for?

   a.

   b.

3. What type of taxes fund the general purpose revenue budget? List two examples of taxes that fit into this category.

   a.

   b.

4. List the three parts of the special purpose revenue budget and describe how each is financed.

   a.

   b.

   c.

5. List the three categories of the GPR budget and explain what each is used for.

   a.

   b.

   c.

6. What percent of state and local taxes are levied by the state? What percent is spent by local units of government?

7. What are the two major sources of state tax revenues, and what percent of the state revenue do they comprise?

   a.

   b.

8. What is the major source of local tax revenue, and what percent of the local revenue does it comprise?

   a.

   b.

   c.

9. What is the largest state and local government expenditure? How much of every dollar spent in 1985 went for this expense?

10. Using Chart 5, list the six sources of taxes in Wisconsin from largest to smallest.

    a.

    b.

    c.

    d.

    e.

    f.

11. Briefly and accurately explain charts 3 and 4.

12. Which chart illustrates the category of tax revenue for driver's license fees?

13. What budget fund would pay for fishing improvements in Wisconsin's southern inland lakes?

13. If state legislators propose a 10-percent cut in the state operations budget, what groups of employees might be effected? What impact might the cut have on 18- to 23-year olds?

14. As a state legislator facing an increase in the state's GPR budget, you must choose between a 3-percent increase in state income taxes or an increase in the state sales tax from 5 percent to 6 percent. Which choice would you make to prevent hurting your reelection chances and why?

15. Due to a cut in state aids—local assistance—in the GPR budget, local property taxes will rise an average of 5 percent around the state. How might the rise affect the following groups:

    a. Homeowners—

    b. Renters—

    c. Farmers—

    d. Welfare Recipients—

State Budget: Education

Lesson 2

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions

Social Judgment
Arrive at reasoned, ethical decisions and evaluate their social consequences

Decision Making
Balance choices and consequences

Resources

"Budget Issue—Education" (activity sheet and data sheets included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Students will look at various aspects of the cost of education. Tell them that they will get a good idea of state education spending and its effects in the classroom. To focus the discussion, ask students how much they think Wisconsin spends on education per pupil and how much other states spend.
2. Distribute the handouts. Discuss and clarify as necessary.

Budget Issue—Education

By any measure, Wisconsin has high taxes. According to recent national figures, Wisconsin ranked ninth in taxes per capita and fourth in taxes per $1,000 of personal income. Wisconsin's tax rates hover 15 percent to 20 percent above the national average. Particularly high, the income tax stands at 67 percent above the national average and the property tax at 35 percent above.

One major reason for the high taxes lies in the high level of spending for public education. Education accounts for nearly 40 percent of all state and local government expenditures in Wisconsin. The state ranks seventh in spending per capita for education, more than 20 percent above the national average. State aid to finance local education accounts for the largest chunk of the state budget and one of the fastest growing.

Wisconsin takes pride in its high quality of education. In 1986, for instance, Wisconsin's average composite score on the ACT, 20.5, ranked second in the nation; the U.S. average was 18.8. As the following statistics illustrate, the investment a state makes in education often corresponds to its students scholastic achievement. With few exceptions, students in states that spend more than the national average outperform their peers in states that spend less than the average. The higher spending levels also relate to higher graduation rates. Some education advocates use these relationships as the basis to argue for continuing or increasing education expenditures.

Assignment

Many people question whether Wisconsin spends too much on education. Using the data in the paragraphs above and in the charts, compile a list of arguments supporting each statement below:

1. Wisconsin should reduce its spending on education.

2. Wisconsin should maintain its current level of spending on education.

Budget Issue—Education

	1985 State Graduation Rates	
1.	Minnesota	90.6%
2.	Nebraska	86.9
3.	Iowa	86.5
4.	North Dakota	86.1
5.	South Dakota	85.1
6.	Wisconsin	84.0
7.	Vermont	83.4
8.	Montana	82.9
9.	Kansas	81.4
10.	Connecticut	80.4
11.	Maine	78.6
12.	Maryland	77.7
13.	New Jersey	77.3
14.	Pennsylvania	77.2
15.	Idaho	76.7
16.	Indiana	76.4
17.	Massachusetts	76.3
18.	Ohio	76.1
	Missouri	76.1
20.	Utah	75.9
21.	Arkansas	75.7
22.	New Hampshire	75.2
23.	Washington	74.9
24.	Wyoming	74.3
25.	Illinois	74.0
26.	Hawaii	73.8
27.	Virginia	73.7
28.	West Virginia	72.8
29.	Oregon	72.7
30.	Colorado	72.2
31.	New Mexico	71.9
	Michigan	71.9
33.	Rhode Island	71.3
34.	Oklahoma	71.1
35.	North Carolina	70.3
36.	Delaware	69.9
37.	Kentucky	68.2
38.	Alaska	67.1
39.	California	65.8
40.	Arizona	64.5
41.	Tennessee	64.1
42.	Nevada	63.9
43.	Texas	63.2
44.	Alabama	63.0
45.	New York	62.7
46.	Georgia	62.6
47.	South Carolina	62.4
48.	Mississippi	61.8
49.	Florida	61.2
50.	Louisiana	54.7
	National Average	70.6

	1985 State and Local Government Expenditures on Education Per Pupil	
1.	Alaska	$7,843
2.	New York	5,492
3.	Wyoming	4,799
4.	Connecticut	4,738
5.	New Jersey	4,504
6.	Rhode Island	4,285
7.	Pennsylvania	4,237
8.	Delaware	4,184
9.	Maryland	4,102
10.	Massachusetts	4,026
11.	Oregon	3,889
12.	Michigan	3,848
13.	Montana	3,847
14.	Wisconsin	3,816
15.	Washington	3,723
16.	Colorado	3,697
17.	Minnesota	3,674
18.	Vermont	3,651
19.	Kansas	3,560
20.	Illinois	3,538
21.	Nebraska	3,471
22.	Hawaii	3,465
23.	Iowa	3,439
24.	New Hampshire	3,271
25.	Ohio	3,257
26.	California	3,256
27.	West Virginia	3,244
28.	Florida	3,238
29.	North Dakota	3,210
30.	Virginia	3,155
31.	New Mexico	3,153
32.	Indiana	3,051
33.	Texas	3,043
34.	Maine	3,204
35.	Missouri	2,958
36.	Louisiana	2,905
37.	South Dakota	2,892
38.	Oklahoma	2,850
39.	Nevada	2,829
40.	Arizona	2,724
41.	Georgia	2,657
42.	North Carolina	2,626
43.	South Carolina	2,591
44.	Idaho	2,401
45.	Kentucky	2,390
46.	Tennessee	2,363
47.	Mississippi	2,357
48.	Arkansas	2,353
49.	Alabama	2,325
50.	Utah	2,220
	National Average	3,449

Budget Issue—Education

1986 ACT and SAT Average Composite Scores

This chart shows the average composite score on either the ACT (American College Testing Program) or SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test) for each state. A state's score is listed under the test that the majority of college-bound students take in that particular state. Washington is not listed because fewer than 35 percent of high school students took either test.

ACT			SAT		
National Rank		**Avg. Score**	**National Rank**		**Avg. Score**
1.	Iowa	20.6	1.	New Hampshire	935
2.	Wisconsin	20.5	2.	Oregon	930
3.	Minnesota	20.3	3.	Delaware	917
4.	Nebraska	20.0	4.	Vermont	916
5.	Colorado	19.9	5.	Connecticut	914
	South Dakota	19.9	6.	Maryland	911
7.	Montana	19.8	7.	Massachusetts	909
8.	Wyoming	19.8	8.	Virginia	908
9.	Ohio	19.7	9.	California	904
	Arizona	19.3	10.	Maine	900
11.	Kansas	19.2	11.	New York	898
	Idaho	19.2		Rhode Island	898
	Missouri	19.2	13.	Florida	895
14.	Utah	19.1	14.	Pennsylvania	894
	Illinois	19.1	15.	New Jersey	889
16.	Nevada	19.0	16.	Hawaii	880
17.	Michigan	18.9	17.	Texas	877
18.	North Dakota	18.5	18.	Indiana	874
19.	Alabama	18.2	19.	Georgia	842
20.	Alaska	18.1	20.	North Carolina	835
	Kentucky	18.1	21.	South Carolina	826
	Arkansas	18.1			
23.	Tennessee	18.0		National Average	906
24.	New Mexico	17.9			
25.	Oklahoma	17.8			
26.	West Virginia	17.7			
27.	Louisiana	16.9			
28.	Mississippi	16.3			
	National Average	18.8			

State Budget: Urban versus Rural Taxes

Lesson 3

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions
Read for meaning

Resources

"Urban versus Rural Tax Burdens" (reading and study guide included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Inform students that they will be looking at an old issue centering around the tax burden for urban residents versus that for rural residents.
2. This information is provided in narrative form accompanied by a chart. Have students read the article and chart and then complete the study guide.

Urban versus Rural Tax Burdens

Conflict between rural and urban interests has been brewing in Wisconsin for some time. The focus of this conflict is taxes. In particular, providing tax relief for one group means increasing the tax burden of another.

The 1980s have been harsh for Wisconsin's farmers. Agricultural land values have plummeted. The number of farms in Wisconsin dropped by 10 percent—from 92,000 in 1981 to 83,000 in 1985—because of declining prices, higher costs, weather conditions, federal government policies, and other factors.

Since no major improvement in Wisconsin's farm economy is expected, farmers and their state legislators have turned to the state for help. State government's ability to provide economic assistance, however, is limited. While the state cannot increase the price of agricultural products or eliminate farm surpluses, it can reduce farmers' taxes.

Nearly three-fourths of the total property tax in rural areas goes to education. Thus, reducing the school tax would help farmers. Measures proposed by some education and farm organizations call for substantial increases in state school aids and decreases in property taxes. General state taxes, such as the income tax and sales tax, finance school aids.

Raising these general state taxes to cover property tax cuts would increase the tax burden of nonfarm taxpayers. Farmers who show a loss in their operations, pay little or no income tax. Thus, any tax increases would affect mostly nonfarmers. (In 1983, for example, the 94,042 income tax returns from farmers showed a statewide loss in farm income of $499 million. A sales tax increase also would shift the cost to nonfarm taxpayers. Typically, most items purchased for farm operations are exempt from sales tax, and farmers do not purchase as many taxable consumer goods as urban consumers do.

Proposals to increase the tax burden of nonfarmers have encountered stiff opposition from urbanites—particularly those in the business community.

Manufacturing, Wisconsin's most important economic sector outside of agriculture, traditionally accounts for about 30 percent of nonfarm employment. In 1977, the *Wall Street Journal* labeled Wisconsin the "Star of the Snowbelt," crediting the state's robust manufacturing sector as its strong point. Indeed, as recently as 1979 Wisconsin had 591,000 manufacturing jobs and a statewide unemployment rate of 4 percent. However, during the 1982 recession, the worst economic downturn since the Great Depression, unemployment jumped to more than 10 percent statewide as Wisconsin lost more than 100,000 manufacturing jobs. The loss of jobs—especially high-paying, high-skill ones—means a loss in tax revenue for the state and its communities, and loss makes Wisconsin's relatively expensive government increasingly difficult to afford.

The business community launched an aggressive campaign to reduce state spending and state taxes, especially the income tax. (The local property tax is not as large a concern to the business community because business inventories and the machinery and equipment used in the manufacturing process are not affected by the property tax.)

The battle over the state budget in recent years has featured a tug-of-war between formidable interest groups with differing political goals. As part of the political equation, tax returns filed by farmers account for only 5 percent of the total 1.9 million income tax returns. While this does not translate into many votes, the farmers are not alone. Joining them in pressing for increased school aid—the largest and fastest growing part of the budget—are the teachers, a powerful political force. On the other side is the business community, a group with significant political clout itself. For lawmakers, the political terrain is treacherous; by helping one interest group, they risk alienating another.

Urban versus Rural Tax Burdens

1. Why do farmers want state aid?
2. What changes in the tax structure have farm organizations proposed?
3. What group opposes the farmers' proposals? Why?
4. What problems have plagued agriculture? Industry?
5. What proposals for tax cuts has the business community made?
6. If you had to restructure taxes, how would you do it? What would you tell opponents (farmers or businesspersons) about your plan?

State Budget: Capital Gains and Welfare Cuts

Lesson 4

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions
Read for meaning

Social Judgment
Arrive at reasoned, ethical decisions and evaluate their social consequences

Decision Making
Balance choices and their consequences

Resources

"Budget Issue: Capital Gains Taxes versus Welfare Cuts" (reading and study guide included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Tell students they will examine several approaches to distributing the tax burden.
2. Distribute the reading and study guide. Review both with the class.
3. Have students complete the study guide.
4. Using the study guide, lead a class discussion.
5. To extend the activity, have students prepare a budget for a family of four living on welfare. Their budget should include food, clothing, utilities, housing, and transportation.

Budget Issue: Capital Gains Taxes versus Welfare Cuts

The process of enacting the 1987-88 state budget was almost overshadowed by the record number of partial vetoes made by Gov. Tommy Thompson. The governor seized the spotlight when he vetoed more than 300 individual items in the budget, far exceeding the previous high of 125 made by former Gov. Lee Dreyfus.

With two of his most controversial vetoes, the governor fulfilled major campaign promises and underscored his legislative priorities.

Thompson's campaign platform included an economic development program. The program sought to maintain the Wisconsin income tax law that excludes 60 percent of capital gains from taxation. Capital gains are profits from selling long-term investments, such as stocks, bonds, and real estate. Although the federal Tax Reform Act of 1986 repealed the 60 percent exclusion for U.S. tax returns, the governor's 1987 tax bill continued the tax break at the state level.

The legislature amended the bill to exclude only 30 percent of capital gains from assets held one to five years, and 60 percent for assets held for over five years. Thompson vetoed the legislature's proposal and retained the full 60 percent for capital gains from the sale of assets held more than one year.

The governor fulfilled another campaign promise when he cut aid to families with dependent children (AFDC) by 6 percent. The legislature had agreed to a 1-percent reduction, but the governor circumvented the legislature's intent by using a controversial partial veto to strike two digits and a decimal point to achieve a 6-percent cut.

In defending the veto, the governor argued that the deeper cut was needed to finance his proposals for welfare reform, which included two new programs, Learnfare and Workfare. Learnfare would require students of welfare families to attend school or their family would lose a part of their welfare payments. Workfare would require welfare recipients to work for their benefits. The governor also noted that the full 6-percent reduction would be offset by an automatic increase in food stamps. He repeated his criticism that AFDC benefits are higher than those in neighboring states, making Wisconsin, Thompson argued, a "magnet state" that draws welfare recipients from lower paying states.

As the table below illustrates, Wisconsin's AFDC benefit levels as of June 1987, even if combined with the cash value of food stamps, remains under the poverty line. The effect of Thompson's 6-percent cut is shown below.

AFDC Payment Levels June 1987

Number of Family Members	Monthly Payments		Annual Payments		1987 Poverty Level
	Before Cut	After 6% Cut	Before Cut	After 6% Cut	
1	$264	$248	$3,168	$2,976	$ 5,500
2	467	440	5,604	5,280	7,400
3	549	517	6,588	6,204	9,300
4	656	617	7,872	7,404	11,200
5	753	708	9,036	8,496	13,100

Many harshly criticized the governor for vetoing the smaller AFDC cut and, at the same time, keeping the capital gains tax breaks. The capital gains provision became a lightening rod since the tax break typically benefits high-income taxpayers. For example, individuals who earn more that $50,000 per year account for less than 4 percent of taxpayers in the state yet account for almost half of the dollars protected by the 60-percent exclusion. Those earning in excess of $300,000 annually fare especially well. Although they represent a tiny fraction of taxpayers, they receive over 15 percent of the breaks—a tax break averaging more than $15,000.

Taxes Saved Through Capital Gains 60-Percent Exclusion

Adjusted Income	Returns Filed	Percent of Returns Filed	Total Taxes Saved	Average Tax Saved	Percent of Total Tax Saved
Less than $5,000	389,718	20.48%	$ 2,558,262	$ 373	4.15%
5,000 - 10,000	319,418	16.78	2,664,300	103	4.32
10,000 - 15,000	248,997	13.09	3,493,592	126	5.67
15,000 - 20,000	208,520	10.96	3,858,993	163	6.26
20,000 - 25,000	191,884	10.08	3,558,128	169	5.77
25,000 - 30,000	164,258	8.63	4,576,468	223	7.43
30,000 - 40,000	216,105	11.36	6,292,294	197	10.20
40,000 - 50,000	94,252	4.95	5,749,269	331	9.32
50,000 - 75,000	50,359	2.65	6,843,425	430	11.10
75,000 - 100,000	8,936	.47	3,412,614	765	5.53
100,000 - 200,00	8,180	.43	6,154,569	1,447	9.98
200,000 - 300,000	1,287	.07	3,136,298	3,774	5.09
300,000 and over	857	.05	9,370,392	15,437	15.19
Total	1,902,771	100%	$61,668,704	$ 307	100%

Source: Legislative Fiscal Bureau (based on 1983 tax sample), Madison, Wisconsin.

Thompson also made changes to the tax bill that amounted to an 11-percent tax cut for individuals earning more than $100,000 per year. This compares with an overall reduction for all taxpayers averaging only 2.1 percent.

Thompson said that by using the 6-percent cut from welfare benefits to fund programs such as Learnfare and Workfare, the number of people receiving welfare will be reduced. And children of welfare families will be more likely to stay in school and ultimately more likely to find a job. Tax breaks for higher income individuals, the governor argued, will stimulate investment and ultimately expand the workforce. In addition, businesses may view Wisconsin as a good state to do business and a good place to stay.

Capital Gains Tax versus Welfare Cuts

1. Summarize Gov. Thompson's change in the welfare program in Wisconsin, including cuts in welfare payments.

2. Summarize the capital gains tax exclusion.

3. List supporting and opposing arguments for both.

4. How many monthly welfare payments to a family of four would have to be reduced by 6 percent to equal the average capital gains tax benefit of a family with a $125,000 income.

5. Assume you are the governor and choose one of the following to defend:

   a. Cutting welfare payments by 6 percent and maintaining the 60-percent exclusion for capital gains.

   b. Raising or maintaining welfare payments and eliminating capital gains tax benefits.

State Budget: The Lottery and Property Tax Relief

Lesson 5

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions

Social Judgment
Arrive at reasoned, ethical decisions and evaluate their social consequences

Decision Making
Balance choices and their consequences

Resources

"Budget Issue: The Lottery and Property Tax Relief" (reading and study guide included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Tell students that they will examine the state lottery as a means of producing tax revenues and relieving property tax.
2. Have students read the narrative and complete the study guide.
3. Use the study guide to lead a discussion.

Budget Issue: The Lottery and Property Tax Relief

On April 7, 1987, almost two-thirds of Wisconsin voters approved an amendment to the state's constitution to permit the legislature to authorize a state-run lottery.

When Wisconsin's constitution was adopted in 1848, it contained a blanket prohibition of any lottery. In 1973, an amendment permitting bingo was approved and, in 1977, raffles were authorized. The 1987 constitutional amendment permitting a state lottery was ratified by the voters after it passed two successive sessions of the legislature in identical form.

On the ballot, the question read:

> "Shall section 24 of article IV of the constitution be revised . . . to permit the creation of a lottery to be operated by the state as provided by law, prohibiting the use of public funds or lottery revenues for promotional advertising of the Wisconsin state lottery, requiring any advertising of the state lottery to indicate the odds of a specific lottery ticket to be selected as the winning ticket for each prize amount offered, and requiring that the net proceeds of the lottery must be used for property tax relief as provided by law?"

By authorizing a lottery, Wisconsin joined a growing national trend—nearly 25 states operate a lottery. The allure of state lotteries rests in their perceived revenue-raising potential. Indeed, lotteries are high-stakes operations. In 1985, lottery sales in the United States exceeded $9 billion, and the proceeds for the states operating them approached $4 billion.

While lotteries conjur images of big dollar signs, they have little impact on state finances. In no state did a lottery raise more than 6 percent of a state's total revenues and taxes, and the average was only 3 percent. Moreover, a lottery is an inefficient way to raise money. About half of lottery sales are used for prize money; administrative costs and related expenses account for about 10 percent of sales. This leaves the states with a 40-percent profit.

In Wisconsin, the success of the lottery depends on several factors, including the number of games, the level of participation, the ratio of sales to prizes, and the administrative costs. One hurdle Wisconsin lottery officials face is that state funds can be used for only informational advertising, not promotional advertising. Generally speaking, a lottery will fail without substantial advertising.

The Legislative Fiscal Bureau, the legislature's nonpartisan research agency for finances, made preliminary estimates that a fully operational lottery would yield $52 million to $59 million per year. At the higher level, lottery revenues would account for 1.2 percent of general states taxes.

The amendment ratified by Wisconsin voters earmarks the net proceeds for "property tax relief," a popular political cause. However, little relief would take place. If the lottery raises $59 million, the average savings in property tax would be 48 cents per $1,000 of the property's equalized market value. A taxpayer with a $75,000 market-value home, would save about $36, or 2.2 percent of the property tax bill. And homeowners who play the lottery typically spend more on tickets than they save on their taxes.

Both opponents and proponents of the lottery are outspoken. Opponents argue that the poor buy most lottery tickets, using money that should pay for food and other essentials. In addition, some say that organized crime will be attracted to a lottery, thus putting an increased burden on police agencies. They also argue that lottery revenues are unpredictable and that the state should not rely on them to fund such programs as education.

Proponents of the lottery argue that Wisconsin loses a substantial amount of potential revenue to neighboring states with lotteries, especially Illinois. They add that it is mostly the middle class that plays the lottery and point to studies that support this claim. In addition, they cite reports from many local, state, federal law enforcement officials attracted to a state lottery.

Budget Issue: The Lottery and Property Tax Relief

1. About how many states have a lottery?

2. What was the amount of lottery sales in the United States in 1985? What was the amount of net proceeds from those sales?

3. What was the largest percent of lottery revenues to go towards state taxes in any state? What is the average?

4. What factors are crucial for the success of Wisconsin's lottery?

5. What hurdle do the Wisconsin lottery officials face?

6. What is the range of revenue the state can expect from a fully operational lottery? What percent of general state taxes does the high end represent?

7. How much property tax could the owner of a $75,000 home save from a fully operational lottery? What percent of the property tax bill is this? Based on these figures, what would the total tax bill be?

8. What arguments do opponents make against a lottery?

9. What arguments do proponents make for a state lottery?

10. In your opinion, should Wisconsin have a state lottery? Support your answer with reasons.

Partial Veto

This activity, based on material provided by Dr. H. Rupert Theobald and Gary A. Watchke of the Legislative Reference Bureau, Madison, Wisconsin, should broaden student's understanding of one of Wisconsin's most controversial issues—the governor's power of partial veto. This issue offers students a closer look at the legislative and budgetary processes and provides them with a model to make decisions and analyze issues.

Lesson 1

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions
Read for meaning

Resource

"Wisconsin's Partial Veto" (reading included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Introduce the topic to students by asking them to recall the system of checks and balances. Ask what check the chief executive has over the legislature. (Students should respond, "veto power.") Ask how a veto works. Ask what happens when the governor likes some parts but not all of a particular bill. Use this to lead into the reading.
2. Distribute the reading and discuss the vocabulary section with the class. Survey the reading, pointing out the various section headings. Inform students that the purpose of the reading is to gain an overview of this process, and why it is controversial.
3. Allow students the remainder of the class period to begin the reading. They are to complete it by the next lesson.

Wisconsin's Partial Veto

Vocabulary

Veto. The power to reject a bill passed by the legislature thus preventing its enactment.
Partial Veto. The power to veto individual passages of a bill.
Item Veto. The power to veto a particular item of a bill.
Digit Veto. A partial veto of specific numbers or parts of numbers in a piece of legislation.
Editing Veto. A partial veto that alters the original text of a bill to express a meaning different than the original's meaning.
Letter Veto. A partial veto to delete specific letters in a bill to alter the bill's original intent.
Appropriation Bills. Bills that pay out state revenue for specific purposes. The state budget is an appropriation bill.
Riders. Amendments or additions to bills that often deal with different issues. Legislators often use riders to pass unpopular ideas through the legislature by riding them through on popular bills.

Background

Both the U.S. and Wisconsin constitutions prescribe three branches of government, each with certain designated powers so that no one branch has more power than another. Within this system, known as checks and balances, a major power of the executive branch rests in the veto.

Veto power may be used by the chief executive to cancel legislation passed by the legislative branch. There are some fundamental differences between the federal and state levels regarding use of this power.

The U.S. Constitution gives the president power to veto or sign only an entire bill. On the other hand, Wisconsin, like 42 other states, gives the governor power to veto portions of certain bills. A Wisconsin constitutional amendment (Article V, Section 10) passed in 1930, provides that the governor may veto any appropriation bill in whole or in part. Most of the controversy surrounding the partial veto in Wisconsin, arises from its use on the state budget act, which allocates state money to particular areas. In the case of bills not involving revenues, however, the governor can either veto or approve the whole bill.

The partial veto has always had its proponents and opponents. As various governors have expanded the application of this veto power, the issue has become more and more controversial. Recently, Gov. Tommy Thompson used 290 partial vetoes on the 1987-89 executive budget act, and again the controversy surged to the forefront.

Timeline

A brief review of Wisconsin history reveals several of the major events surrounding this issue.

Gov. Francis E. McGovern first raised the idea of a partial veto in 1913 when he requested the legislature to amend the constitution so the governor could veto separate items in appropriation bills. In spite of his plea, it was not until 1925 that such a measure was introduced. However, it was eventually defeated in the Senate by a five-vote margin.

A proposal granting partial veto power to the governor was finally approved by the legislature and ratified by Wisconsin voters as a constitutional amendment in 1930. Slightly modified from the 1925 version, it read: "Appropriation bills may be approved in whole or in part by the governor, and the part approved shall become law, and the part objected to shall be returned in the same manner as provide for other bills." By this time, governors in 37 other states had partial veto power over appropriation bills. However, all the other state constitutions used the word "item" instead of the word "part" to describe the veto power. And the one phrase, "in part," has led to some creative vetoes and some heated debates.

Beginning in 1971 with Gov. Patrick Lucey, governors started using the partial veto in very unusual ways, thus causing a great deal of controversy over its use on unrelated riders attached to appropriation bills or its use to reverse the original intent of a bill.

- Gov. Lucey was the first to use the digit veto.
- Gov. Lee Dreyfus used both the digit veto and the editing veto.
- Gov. Anthony Earl used both the digit and editing vetoes and invented the letter veto.
- Gov. Tommy Thompson used all three vetoes on the 1987-89 executive budget act and set a record for the most used on one piece of legislation.

Attempts to Restrict the Partial Veto

Since the enactment of the partial veto, the legislature has attempted, without success, a variety of measures to restrict or eliminate the governor's tool. The content and aims of these proposals have changed over the years and have included provisions to

1935—limit partial vetoes to "appropriation items" in appropriation bills.
1941—permit governors to "disapprove or reduce items or parts of 'items' in any bill appropriating money."
1961—require governors to return to the legislature vetoed portions of appropriation bills for reconsideration. If overridden by a simple majority vote, the portion would go back to the governor for final action (approval or disapproval).
1969—require only a simple majority in each house to override vetoed portions that did not include an appropriation and to restrict the partial veto to only the appropriation sections of a bill.
1973—eliminate the partial veto from the constitution.
1975—limit the partial veto to appropriation paragraphs or amounts.
1977—limit the partial veto to complete dollar amounts or to numbered sections of the bill.
1979—limit the partial veto to whole sections of appropriations bills and to require that any vetoed section of was "capable enactment as a complete and workable bill" or was a whole dollar amount. This proposal passed both houses in the first legislature, but failed in the assembly on its second trip through the legislature.
1983—impose the same limits as the 1977 resolution, mentioned above.

Besides legislation efforts to change the partial veto, the lawmakers have also sought rulings from the attorney general and the Wisconsin Supreme Court. Opinions from the attorney general have favored the governor. The Supreme Court, which has ruled on the constitutionality of the partial veto five times between 1935 and 1978, also has upheld the governor's use of the partial veto.

In its latest attempt to restrict the partial veto, the Wisconsin legislature petitioned the State Supreme Court to determine if the governor must follow any guidelines when making partial vetoes of appropriation bills. As of October 20, 1987, the court ordered that both parties submit a "Stipulation of Facts" within ten days listing arguments as to why the court should rule on this issue. If the court decides not to rule on this matter, or if it rules in favor of the governor, the legislature will likely introduce another measure to limit the veto.

Pro and Con Arguments

Supporters of the partial veto argue that the all-or-nothing veto removes the governor from the budget process. Under this restriction, a governor could not reduce or increase revenues in specific areas or eliminate bad legislation. The only option would be to pass or defeat the entire bill. If it passes in total, some of what the executives consider to be bad legislation will also pass. If it dies, some good legislation will also die.

Supporters also argue that eliminating the partial veto would disrupt the system of checks and balances by tipping the balance of power in favor of the legislative branch. At issue is a fundamental constitutional issue: whether the constitution intended an equal or weak executive branch.

A third argument, which is political in nature, advances the notion that state spending is a major public concern and that voters hold the governor responsible for controlling the budget. Thus, when the electorate grows dissatisfied with the state's fiscal management they, in essence, fire the manager—elect a new governor. Supporters argue that, without the partial veto, the governor is unfairly held responsible for the actions of the legislature.

Finally, proponents of the partial veto argue that since the governor introduces the executive budget bill to the legislature, the executive branch should retain some control. Otherwise they argue, the legislature could approve a budget that would politically embarrass the governor.

Opponents, on the other hand, argue that the governor has too much control. In 1930, prior to the ratification of the partial veto amendment, Philip La Follette, during his successful campaign for governor, argued against the amendment. The amendment, he contended, granted dictatorial power to the governor. He said: "The effect of the amendment is to give the chief executive additional power in the general conduct and control of government. It is another step in the concentration of power in the executive office . . . ." Once in the governor's office, however, La Follette himself used the partial veto on two appropriation bills.

Another problem, opponents argue, is that the partial veto is too loosely defined in the constitution. As a result, governors have stretched this constitutional provision beyond its normal intent. The opponents point to the use of the digit, editing, and letter vetoes as examples of this abuse.

Lastly, opponents argue that the partial veto contradicts democracy itself. Because the legislature needs a two-thirds majority to override a partial veto, the governor can effectively pass a budget that a majority of legislators oppose. Opponents argue that to balance this power the override requirements should be reduced from a two-thirds majority to a simple majority.

Lesson 2

Skills Focus

Group Participation
Contribution to discussion in large and small groups

Resources

"Examples of the Partial Veto" (transparency master included), "Issue Dissection Model" (activity sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Discuss the reading from Lesson 1, and answer any questions students have.
2. On an overhead projector, display the examples. Ask students to share their opinions and attitudes about the creative use of the veto.
3. Explain that issues arise from disagreements. Tell students that to be informed and active citizens they must understand the various sides of an issue and its background.
4. Read the handout with the class, clarifying as necessary. Have students label three sheets of paper as instructed on the handout. Also, have them copy the following position statement on one of their sheets. Explain that this statement will be used to determine the pro and con arguments. Statement: "A governor should have unlimited use of the partial veto on appropriation bills."
5. Allow students the remainder of time to begin the assignment. It may be helpful to have students work in pairs or small groups. The assignment is due the next day.

Examples of the Partial Veto

Example 1:

Governor Thompson used the partial veto illustrated below to reduce the amount of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). The original version of the bill called for AFDC payments to be at 85 percent of the poverty level, a 1 percent decrease from the previous budget. The Governor, using a creative veto, reduced the amount another 5 percent. Vetoed items are enclosed by brackets: [ ]

"Monthly payments made under s. 20.435(4)(d) and (p) to persons or to families with dependent children shall be based on family size and shall be at [*85%*] 8[*4.*]0[*4*]% of the total of the allowances under subds. 2 and 4 plus the following standards of assistance for the period from . . . ."

Example 2:

Governor Thompson used the partial veto illustrated below to change the amount of time that juveniles may be detained for behavior not covered by a specific sanction from two days to ten days by his creative use of the partial veto.

"[If no other sanction is appropriate,] placement of the child in a secure detention facility or juvenile portion of a county jail that meets the standards promulgated by the department by rule, for not more than [48 hours. If] t[h]e [child is e]n[rolled in a school that is in session during any] day [of the placement, the court] s[hall order either that the child be released to] a[tte]nd consistent with his or her current course of study during the period of placement.

Issue Dissection Model

Dissection, a term usually used in biology, can be an effective learning tool in the social studies. In this exercise, you will dissect an issue to understand it more deeply.

The issue you will take apart is the governor's use of the partial veto. The article that you just finished reading, "Wisconsin's Partial Veto," contains enough information to help you understand the origins and sides of this issue and complete the following activity.

1. Label three sheets of paper with the following headings and subheadings:

    - Sheet 1: History of the Issue
      —Basic Problem
      —Key Vocabulary
      —Timeline
      —Current Situation
    - Sheet 2: Supporting the Partial Veto
      —Proponents
      —Supporting Reasons
      —Supporting Solutions
    - Sheet 3: Opposing the Partial Veto
      —Opponents
      —Opposing Reasons
      —Opposing Solutions

2. As you reread the article look for information that fits under these headings. When you locate it write it on the appropriate page. Be sure to use your own words.
3. The following description of each section should help you select information for the various areas.

History of the Issue

Basic Problem. How are people affected by this issue? Give statistics that indicate the size of the problem—how many people, how large an area, how much money is involved, and so on. Include case studies describing specific instances of the issue from both the positive and negative perspectives.

Key Vocabulary. What must be understood to make sense of this issue? List only specific words, terms, or concepts. Define each item in easily understood terms.

Timeline. When did the issue first surface? List key events such as trials, demonstrations, or disasters. Provide dates and a description of the event and its significance to the issue.

Current Situation. What laws, if any, concerning the issue are in effect or are being proposed? List current laws (local, state, federal), current bills (within the last year), or other proposals (from politicians, special interest groups, and government agencies).

Supporting the Partial Veto

Proponents. What key individuals or groups favor this position? Include elected officials, political parties, special interest groups, and others capable of influencing or making decisions on the issue.

Supporting Reasons. How do they support their position? As you record the reasons, classify them into two categories: general and specific. General statements are broad and lack details. Specific statements include charts, tables, statistics, graphs, facts, and values that support the general statements.

Supporting Solutions. What strategies and methods does this side propose to resolve this issue? Describe each solution, its possible impact, and any other information necessary to understand the issue. In some cases the solution may be to keep the status quo.

Opposing the Partial Veto

Opponents. What key individuals or groups favor this position? Include elected officials, political parties, special interest groups, and others capable of influencing or making decisions on the issue.

Opposing Reasons. How do they support their position? As you record the reasons classify them into two categories: general and specific.

Opposing Solutions. What strategies and methods does this side propose to resolve this issue? Describe each solution, its possible impact, and any other information necessary to understand the issue. In some cases the solution may be to keep the status quo.

Partial Veto

Lesson 3

Skills Focus

Communicating
Communicate knowledge and ideas in a variety of forms

Decision Making
Balance choices and their consequences

Social Judgment
Apply jurisprudential reasoning in the application of rules, laws, and principles.

Resource

"Position Paper Guidelines" (activity sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Discuss answers to the "Issue Dissection Model." Using an overhead projector to list their responses, have students share their answers.
2. Distribute the handout. To prepare students for the assignment, use the following prewriting activity:

- Have students divide a sheet of lined paper into two columns and label one column "Pro Arguments" and the other "Con Arguments." Allow them five minutes to list all the pro and con arguments that they can recall from the reading "Wisconsin's Partial Veto."
- Ask students to decide their position (pro, con, or compromise) on the use of the partial veto. Allow them five to seven minutes to review the reading and take a position.
- For the next five to seven minutes have students write down their thoughts on the issue. They can draw their ideas from the "Issue Dissection" assignment and the reading.
- Rather than focus on the structure of writing, the students should list as many thoughts as possible. If they get writer's block, tell them to rewrite their last word until they break through it.

3. Have students use the prewriting activity as the basis for the first draft of their paper, which is due the next day.

Follow-up Lesson

Inform students that they will be participating in an editing workshop to help them improve their position paper. Place students into groups of three (use two or four only when necessary). Have students read the papers of the other group members and make some constructive criticism. Remind students that constructive is different from destructive. After students complete this phase, have them begin work on their final draft, which is due the next day.

Position Paper Guidelines

You should now have a thorough understanding of the issue. In this assignment you will be taking a stand on the issue. Your position falls in one of the three following categories:

- Pro position: supports the position statement 100 percent and totally opposes any compromise.
- Con position: opposes the position statement 100 percent and totally opposes any compromise.
- Compromise position: neither totally for nor totally against the position statement, but favors a position between the two extremes.

Your task is to articulate and explain your position in a position paper with the following components:

- An introductory paragraph clearly stating your position on the issue: pro, con, or compromise.
- Two to four supporting paragraphs detailing your specific arguments and supporting your position.
- A concluding paragraph aimed at convincing others to take your position.

Partial Veto

Lesson 4

Skills Focus

Group Participation

Listen to and be considerate of people's contributions and points of view

Contribute to discussion in large and small groups

Social Judgment

Arrive at reasoned, ethical decisions and evaluate their social consequences

Decision Making

Balance choices and their consequences

Resources

"Guidelines for Writing Resolutions" (data sheet included), "Resolution" (activity sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Tell students they are to prepare a resolution that reflects their position on the issue of the partial veto. Explain that this will be done in small groups consisting of students with similar positions.
2. Distribute and discuss the handouts.
3. Divide students into three groups: pro, con, and compromise. Try to limit the groups to about five students. If necessary, divide the groups into smaller ones.
4. Tell the groups to write a resolution that reflects the group's consensus on the issue.
5. Allow them the remainder of the class period to complete the assignment.

Follow-up Lesson

Have each group present their resolution to the class. Allow time after each presentation for questions, reactions, and criticisms. Presenters should use information from their position papers to defend their position. After the presentations, conduct a secret ballot vote to determine which resolution gives the best case. Consider asking teachers, administrators, parents, politicians, or other community members to sit on a panel to rate presentations.

Guidelines for Writing Resolutions

Intent

- This is the "Whereas" section. Remember that whereas means "because."
- This section lists reasons for the attitudes and opinions you will express in the letter of the resolution. Each reason starts with "Whereas" and ends with a semicolon and an "and" except the last, which ends with a period.
- Some reasons you may want to express are listed below:
  - — Examples and evidence of how serious the problem is.
  - — Some of the causes of the problem.
- Be concise and write small if necessary. You are limited by the amount of space available.

Letter

- This section states the position you are taking.
- The attitude or opinion may state one of two things.
  - — The status quo (present condition) is just fine. In fact, the situation should not change.
  - — The people, or government, should do ___________ to change the status quo.

Sample Resolution

Issue: **The 55-mph Speed Limit**
Position: **The 55-mph speed limit should be reinstated.**

Intent

1. Whereas the 55-mph speed limit saves lives; and
2. Whereas the limit reduced spinal cord injuries; and
3. Whereas the limit conserves gasoline; and
4. Whereas states need to enforce the limit.

Letter

Therefore, be it resolved that

1. This group believes that the 55-mph speed limit should become law in all states.
2. The United States Congress should pass laws requiring that all states strictly enforce a
3. 55-mph speed limit. Congress should penalize states that do not strictly enforce the limit
4. with the loss of all federal highway funding. Congress should reward states that do
5. comply by giving them monies lost by the states in noncompliance.

Resolution

Intent

1. **Whereas**______________________________; **and**

2. **Whereas**______________________________; **and**

3. **Whereas**______________________________; **and**

4. **Whereas**______________________________

Letter

Therefore, be it resolved:

1. ______________________________
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________
4. ______________________________
5. ______________________________
6. ______________________________
7. ______________________________
8. ______________________________
9. ______________________________
10. ______________________________
11. ______________________________
12. ____________________________

Economic Climate

This activity will acquaint students with the debate over how to improve the state's economy and ultimately its quality of life. The lessons focus on tax relief, education, and employment. The information for this activity was provided by Mike McCabe of the Wisconsin Taxpayers Alliance, Madison, Wisconsin.

Lesson 1

Skills Focus

Communicating
Listen carefully, and ask questions
Read for meaning

Resources

"Wisconsin's Economic Future: In search of the 'Good Life' " (reading and study guide included), "How Much Government Can We Afford?" (data sheet included)

Suggested Procedure

1. Tell students they will explore the debate over one of the more pressing issues facing Wisconsin's government—improving the state's economy.
2. Distribute the data sheets. Explain that much of the debate over our economic climate centers around taxes. Define tax capacity and tax effort. Briefly discuss the two terms and how they relate to economic climate.
3. Distribute the reading and study guide. Allow students the remainder of the class period to complete the assignment, which is due the next day.

Follow-up Lessons

Discuss the study guide and reading, focusing on items 7 and 8. Ask students which position they think would work best and why. Invite two guest speakers to share their views on how to spur economic development. Describe the speakers' backgrounds to the class and the points they will address so students can formulate questions and be prepared to take good notes. Try to invite two speakers who represent different views on improving the state's economy to address the class.

Possible guests include business leaders, union representatives, local and state politicians, farmers, and college instructors. Send the guests a list of questions that will help them prepare their presentation. The list could include the following:

- Why is this position best for the community and state?
- How would the plan work? What programs would be started, expanded, or ended?
- How would various taxes be affected?
- How would the business community view this plan?

Allow enough time for speakers' presentations and questions from students.

Wisconsin's Economic Future: In Search of the "Good Life"

Wisconsin, labeled the "Star of the Snowbelt" by the *Wall Street Journal* in 1977 because of the state's strong economic performance, has lost its luster in recent years. During the 1982 recession, unemployment jumped to its highest level since the depression of the 1930s, and the subsequent economic recovery fell short, leaving Wisconsin's economy in a less than ideal condition.

In 1979 the economy was booming; Wisconsin manufacturing employment stood at 591,000. By 1983, however, that number had dropped to 484,000. Although it continues to rebound, the employment rate remains below earlier levels. Even estimates that manufacturing employment will grow to 555,000 by 1995 are still 36,000 below the 1979 level.

This finding and others showing a faltering economy prompted the Wisconsin Strategic Development Commission to warn that the loss of manufacturing jobs, especially the ones requiring high-skill and offering high-pay, means a loss of economic wealth to the state. The commission went so far as to ask: "Is Wisconsin's historically strong economic performance a thing of the past?" Adding to this gloomy outlook, chief executives of several major companies expressed their displeasure with Wisconsin's business climate.

A major complaint leveled at Wisconsin's business climate is its high taxes. Although, the price of doing business includes other factors—such as labor costs, the availability of raw materials, and the proximity to markets—taxes can generate strong emotions.

According to a 1984 report entitled *Wisconsin Business Climate Study*, Wisconsin business executives said that the state had an unfavorable business climate. They noted in particular its business taxes. Ironically, another report, this one issued by the Wisconsin Department of Revenue, found that the state's business taxes are about 20 percent below the average imposed by competing states.

While business taxes are relatively low, Wisconsin's individual taxes are high. Individual taxes include income tax and property tax. Wisconsin residents pay an average of $1,730 per person per year in state and local taxes. Wisconsin ranks ninth in the nation for total individual taxes and fourth for income tax. When measured against personal income, the tax burden is even greater.

This led the Strategic Development Commission to conclude that one of Wisconsin's economic weaknesses is its "expensive government that is increasingly difficult to afford." The commission recommended a permanent cut in the state's personal income tax and a change in tax rates to give larger cuts to high-income taxpayers. It also recommended that the governor appoint a commission to review state and local government spending.

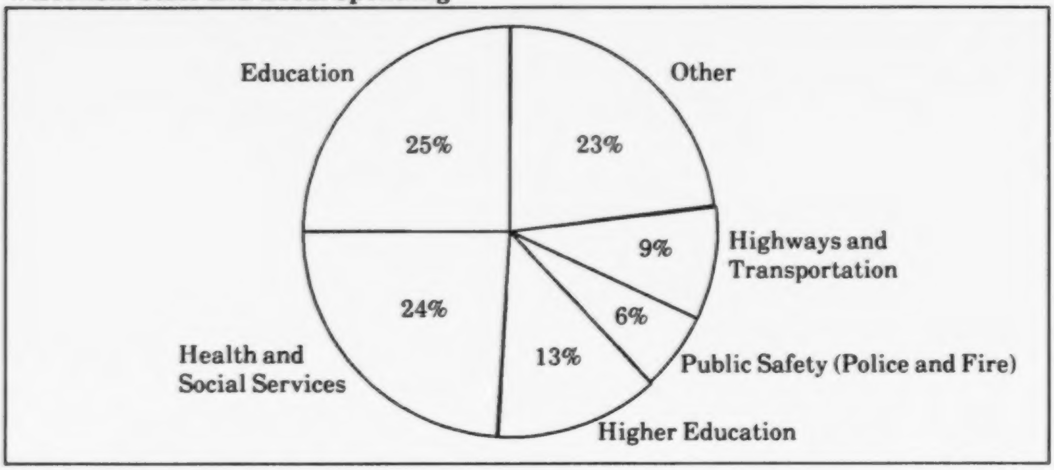
The recommended tax reductions were made under governors Anthony Earl and Tommy Thompson, and the Wisconsin Expenditure Commission was created to review state spending. The nine-member panel recommended that government spending be controlled so that by 1992 or 1993 it would be at the U.S. average.

Any meaningful reductions must focus on the high-price-tag items, but cutting government spending in Wisconsin is a double-edged sword. While substantial cuts would improve the state's tax climate, these cuts could erode the quality of education and other human services that help maintain Wisconsin's quality of life.

In the words of Paul Hassett, former president of the Wisconsin Association of Manufacturers and Commerce: "You get what you pay for. You find that those states that some think are the cheapest places to do business also have poor salaries, poor schools and education, low taxes, a high crime rate and a lot of stress. That's why I think Wisconsin has a great future—because so many states have so much to do to compete with our good life."

The delicate balance between Wisconsin's economic climate and its taxes and spending will likely be debated for some time. Citizens and legislators alike must ask two questions about that delicate balance. Can the state create a healthy economic climate and maintain a quality of life that makes Wisconsin special? And can Wisconsin afford it?

Wisconsin State and Local Spending



Position 1: Lower Taxes and Spending

In his first State of the State Address, Gov. Tommy Thompson sounded a theme that has become his administration's battle cry: "I believe our biggest challenge is to create more jobs in Wisconsin."

The governor painted a dreary portrait of Wisconsin's economy. In recent years, he said, Wisconsin's economic growth has been half the national average and, in 1985, the state ranked 46th for its entrepreneurial climate.

"To make our state a leader in business and job creation," Gov. Thompson said, "we must change attitudes—our own and especially the attitudes that others have about Wisconsin." One such attitude is the belief that Wisconsin's comparatively high taxes inhibit economic development. To remove this barrier, the Thompson administration adopted the creation of a competitive tax climate as the cornerstone of its economic development policy.

A 1984 study confirmed that Wisconsin business executives have negative views of the state's business taxes. More than 80 percent regarded state business taxes unfavorably. Only 8 percent viewed them favorably. Part of the problem is image. For example, 40 percent of business executives in North Carolina said business taxes there were a positive factor, yet North Carolina's business taxes are significantly higher than Wisconsin's.

While state and local taxes are only one factor in the cost of doing business, many perceive them as being more important. If business leaders see a state as "anti-business" because of its tax climate, that perception will influence their business decisions.

Wisconsin's high individual taxes have earned the state a tarnished image in the eyes of many business leaders. As a result, they will take their businesses to states that have tax climates they see as less hostile.

To change negative attitudes about Wisconsin, Gov. Thompson advocated reducing individual income taxes, providing capital gains tax breaks for investors and entrepreneurs, and eliminating the state's inheritance and gift tax. He argued that these taxes were far above the national average and encouraged many business executives, investors, and retirees to move out of Wisconsin in search of lower tax bills. Not only did Wisconsin's business image suffer due to high taxes, but money that might have been invested in the state was leaving as well.

To reduce taxes, state and local government spending has to be cut. Gov. Thompson endorsed the Wisconsin Expenditure Commission's recommendation to limit Wisconsin's spending to the national average. These reductions, the governor said, are essential ingredients in the economic development recipe to improve Wisconsin's image and ultimately to create jobs.

Position 2: Invest in the State's Quality of Life

Each year, Grant Thornton, a public accounting firm, issues an evaluation of state business climates. According to the Grant Thornton index, two-thirds of the states have more inviting economic environments than Wisconsin. In fact, Wisconsin perennially ranks near the bottom of the list.

Although this evaluation seems gloomy for the state, many fail to realize that it ignores Wisconsin's high quality of life. While no state has perfect economic and living conditions, few can match Wisconsin's standard of living.

The Grant Thornton report sends chills down the spines of Wisconsin officials, but several groups, including the Corporation for Enterprise Development (CED) of Washington, D.C., say the evaluation is worthless.

A CED report points out that Grant Thornton relies on the popular definition of a good business climate as a state with low taxes and wage rates, minimal government regulation, and ineffective or nonexistent labor unions. The CED report concludes "the [Grant Thornton] index measures the cost of everything and the value of nothing."

According to CED president Robert Friedman, the states that are high on the Grant Thornton list "have ignored the significant benefits that come from long-term public investments in individuals, technology and small business. They have de-emphasized education and training. They have allowed their roads, sewers, and airports to deteriorate."

The CED argues that a good business climate involves a lot more than low costs and limited government. For example, South Dakota, first on the Grant Thornton list for two years in a row, actually lost jobs. Meanwhile, Michigan, which was dead last for three years in a row, gained jobs.

Nevertheless, many states continue to chase industry by easing regulations and offering expensive tax breaks and glitzy financial incentives. States frequently get burned, says Richards Sims, an economic development consultant from Lexington, Kentucky.

Pennsylvania gave Volkswagen $88 million for the promise of 5,000 jobs. Volkswagen never employed more than 2,800 at the plant that is now shut down, Sims said. General Motors' Saturn Corporation promised Tennessee 5,000 jobs in return for a multi-million dollar incentive package, then scaled back investment and employment by 50 percent at the plant it is building there, he said.

In Wisconsin, state and local officials offered Chrysler Corporation more than $5 million in assistance along with special breaks on environmental regulations, only to have the automaker halt car production at Kenosha.

The CED concludes that states are better off if they place "a great emphasis on the long-term payoffs associated with education, training, health care, and other public services."

The Wisconsin Strategic Development Commission agreed: "It is unlikely that Wisconsin will ever be able to compete on the basis of low cost, but the state does have significant strengths that it can capitalize on. Wisconsin [should] tailor its strategy to take advantage of its very high-quality work force, university and other educational institutions, natural resources, and quality of life."

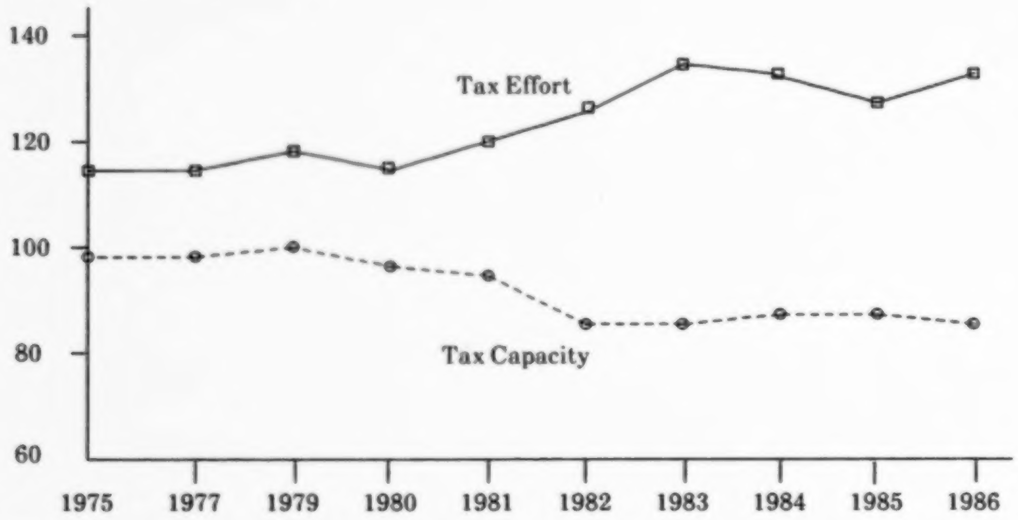
How Much Government Can We Afford?

Part of the debate over how to best improve Wisconsin's economic climate focuses on the difference between the state's tax capacity and its tax effort. Tax capacity measures a state's economic resources or tax base. These resources include property values, income levels, product sales, and so forth. Tax effort, on the other hand, measures how heavily a state taxes its resources.

Compared with other states, Wisconsin ranks low in tax capacity and high in tax effort. The balance between these two indicators shows the burden that taxpayers carry. The two statistics are often compared with the national average, listed at 100 in the accompanying chart.

The chart shows that Wisconsin's tax capacity was close to the national average from 1975 to 1980. When the recession hit in 1982, however, the capacity began to slide. As it dropped, Wisconsin's tax effort increased because the recession caused many of the state's economic resources to shrink.

In 1986 nearly half the states had a tax capacity that exceeded its tax effort, generally a sign of a healthy economy. Of the remaining states, however, Wisconsin led those having a tax effort higher than tax capacity. The difference between the two figures was 48 for Wisconsin; New York, which had led in previous years, was second at 45 points.



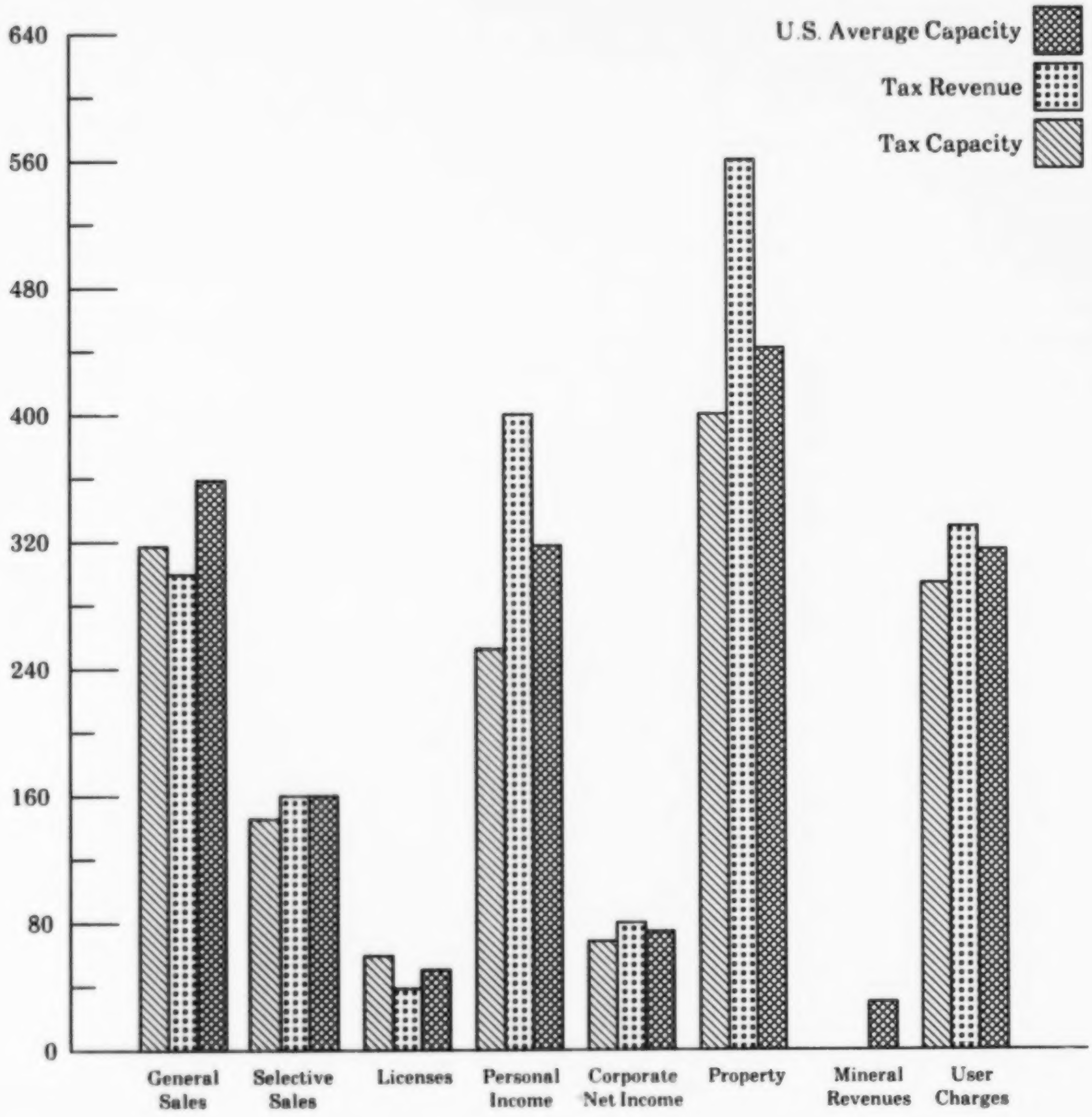
Source: "Wisconsin's Tax Capacity and Tax Effort," Wisconsin Taxpayers Alliance, Madison, Wisconsin.

Selected Taxes

The following chart shows, on a per capita basis, Wisconsin's tax capacity, tax revenue and the U.S. average tax capacity for several taxes. For the general and selective sales tax categories, the per capita tax capacity and revenues are about the same. In the case of personal income and property taxes, the per capita tax revenue far exceeds the tax capacity, and Wisconsin's tax capacity is below the United States average. Wisconsin's high tax burden compared to other states and its below-average capacity to pay the high taxes make state and local spending a prime political issue.

1985 Tax Capacity and Tax Revenue

Selected Tax Bases



Source: "How Much Government Can We Afford?" Wisconsin Taxpayers Alliance, Madison, Wisconsin.

Wisconsin's Economic Future: In Search of the "Good Life"

1. How many manufacturing jobs were lost between 1979 and 1983 in Wisconsin? How is this picture projected to change by 1995?

2. What factors besides taxes should companies consider when judging a state's business climate?

3. How do Wisconsin's business taxes compare with those of competing states.

4. What Wisconsin taxes are high? What is Wisconsin's rank for these?

5. What solutions have been proposed to make Wisconsin's government more affordable?

6. What are the five largest spending categories of Wisconsin government?

7. Summarize the main arguments made in "Position 1: Lower Taxes and Spending."

8. Summarize the main arguments made in "Position 2: Invest in the State's Quality of Life."

Economic Climate

Lesson 2

Skills Focus

Group Participation
Contribute to discussion in large and small groups

Suggested Procedure

1. Inform students they will develop proposals for improving the quality of life in Wisconsin.
2. Divide the class into groups of four or five. To determine the divisions, ask students to take one of three positions: cut taxes and spending, maintain or increase program funding, or a compromise. If some students are indecisive, simply assign them to groups. Another option is to place all students into groups and then assign the groups a position.
3. Explain that the group's proposals must include the following:

- A statement of reasons that support their position.
- Specific details on how their plan will work. What taxes will be raised or lowered? Where will money be spent or saved? What programs will be created or cut? How will the plan affect the business community, education, taxpayers?
- An explanation of how the proposal will improve the quality of life, that is, how it will create jobs, lower taxes, and make Wisconsin a better place to live.

4. Place students in their groups. Allow them the remainder of the class period to finish. If necessary, give the students an additional class period.

Follow-up Lesson

Allow each group five to ten minutes to present its proposal to the class and answer questions from the class. At the end of the presentations, have students vote by secret ballot for the best proposal. A panel of outside judges from the school or community could be asked to evaluate the proposals. The best proposals might also be sent to legislators involved with this issue.

Resources for Research and Instruction

Teacher References
Student References
Films, Videos, and Filmstrips
Organizations, Associations, and Publications

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Films, Videotapes, and Filmstrips

General

Affirmative Action versus Reverse Discrimination. 60 minutes, video. Wilmette, IL: Films Inc., 1984.

Examines accusations that affirmative action programs foster reverse discrimination and raises questions associated with the Fifth and 14th amendments.

American Taxpayers in Revolt. Filmstrip. Ridgefield, CT: Current Affairs, division of Key Productions. Color/sound

Examines rising costs of government and taxpayers' demands for relief from high taxes.

Arrest and Seize. Under the Law: 17 minutes, 16 mm. Burbank, CA: Walt Disney Educational Media, 1973.

Dramatizes police search and seizure; explores implications and circumstances in the legal detention of an automobile and its occupants.

Basic Law Terms. 18 minutes, 16 mm. Santa Monica, CA: Pyramid Film & Video , 1973.

Provides clear definitions of legal terms; attempts to show young people how to make the law work for them.

Law and the Citizen: Contract Law. 22 minutes, 16 mm. Pasadena, CA: Barr Films.

Describes rights and responsibilities under contract law; includes an open ended case for discussion.

"Federalism: The National Government versus the States" from *The Constitution: That Delicate Balance.* 60 minutes, video. Wilmette, IL: Films Inc., 1984.

Asks if federal incentives to the local school board foster the national good and if federal standards lead to meritocracy.

We the People: Aspects of American Government. Filmstrip and video. Mt. Kisco, NY: Guidance Associates.

Provides information on several aspects of American Government at all levels.

Your Vote Counts: State and Local Government. Filmstrip and video. Mt. Kisco, NY: Guidance Associates.

Outlines basic structure and function of state, county, and local governments; stresses relationships and interaction of different levels of government.

Local Government

Changing the Law. 22 minutes, 16 mm. New York: Phoenix/BFA Films and Video, 1968.

Shows how citizens can influence the law through the use of violence or by bringing the issue to the city council.

Citizen Participation: A Case Study in Economic Development. 51 minutes, 16 mm. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin-Photo Media, 1980.

Applies citizen participation to the redevelopment of downtown Eau Claire.

City Government. Five filmstrips. Del Mar, CA: CRM/McGraw-Hill Films.

Titles include: "How Does it Work?" "How Are Leaders Elected?" "What do Councilmen and Judges Do?" "How Does the City Serve the People?" "How Does the City Protect the People?"

City Government: Closest to the People. 20 minutes, 16 mm and video. Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica Education Corporation, 1977.

Examines local governments of five U.S. cities to identify common problems and uncommon solutions to these problems.

City Government in the United States. 18 minutes, 16 mm and video. Phoenix/BFA Films and Video, 1976.

Shows two basic forms of city government—mayor-council and city manager—and describes the advantages of each.

Civil Court. 39 minutes, 16 mm. Seattle, WA: Screen Educational Enterprises, 1973.

Documents a day of a 16-year-old high school student who seeks damages for injuries; includes civil court action from pretrial to jury deliberations and the delivery of the verdict.

The Day They Had to Close the Schools. 20 minutes, 16 mm. New York: Phoenix/BFA Films and Video, 1970.

Portrays emotional and economic issues of voter resentment over taxes; discusses the need for adequate finances and the threat of closing the school.

Democracy: Your Voice Can be Heard. 20 minutes, 16 mm. Deerfield, IL: Coronet, division of Simon & Schuster Communications, 1970.

Story of Detroit high school students who campaign for improvements at a public hospital.

The Grand Jury: An Institution Under Fire. 36 minutes, 16 mm. Del Mar, CA: CRM/ McGraw-Hill Films.

Provides a history of the grand jury system and discusses some well known cases; recommends reforms to the system.

Inside Government: A Local Conflict. 24 minutes, 16 mm. Los Angeles: Churchill Films, 1975.

Demonstrates government on many levels; shows the work of council and community cooperation to influence city hall.

Juvenile Law. 23 minutes, 16 mm. Pasadena, CA: Barr Films, 1974.

Shows differences between adult criminal procedures and juvenile law by showing how two brothers (ages 15 and 18) are treated for the same crime.

Local Government and the Individual. Two filmstrips. Culver City, CA: Social Studies School Services.

Shows forms and functions of several levels of government; indicates how people can become involved in government at the grassroots level.

Mass Transit: Up, Up, and Away! 24 minutes, 16 mm. New York: Cinema Guild, 1970.

Shows how present methods of handling traffic are leading to urban breakdown.

Megalopolis East and Megalopolis West. Two filmstrips. New Rochelle, NY: Pathescope Educational Media.

Explores how megalopolises should be organized and governed and how services can be delivered.

Pico Union: Urban Community Development. 30 minutes, 16 mm. University of California-Los Angeles, Instructional Media Library, 1970.

Highlights citizen action to preserve the community by promoting involvement in urban renewal planning.

Poletown Lives. 52 minutes, 16 mm and video. Wayne, NJ: New Day Films, 1982.

Shows political action by neighbors to resist demolition of the neighborhood for a new factory.

Quiet Changes. 27 minutes, 16 mm. New York: Du Art Film Laboratories, 1978.

Discusses impact of large numbers of people moving from urban areas to Marshfield and Evansville, Wisconsin; stresses the need for citizen involvement in developing long-range community development plans.

What Can I Do? (Re: Politics). 22 minutes, 16 mm. Pasadena, CA: Barr Films, 1975.

Explores the ways we can influence change by participating in local politics.

Wisconsin Tort Liability: Road and Street Maintenance. 22 minutes, video. University of Wisconsin-Agricultural Journalism Video Unit, 1980.

Asks if Wisconsin municipalities can be sued for alleged negligence in street repair.

Wisconsin Town Governments. 15 minutes, video. University of Wisconsin-Agricultural Journalism Video Unit, 1987.

Provides a history of town government; includes a board meeting, and an annual town meeting in Waupaca County.

State Government

Campaign. 16 minutes, 16 mm. Los Angeles: Churchill Films, 1973.

Discusses campaign procedures for state office.

Inside Government: Legislator. 26 minutes, 16 mm. Los Angeles: Churchill Films, 1975.

Provides a behind-the-scene look at a state legislator's attempt to get a bill through the legislature.

Inside Government: Lobbying. 24 minutes, 16 mm. Los Angels: Churchill Films, 1975.

Shows two lobbyists working behind the scenes; also deals with various lobbying reforms.

"Inside the Jury Room," *Frontline* Video Series. 58 minutes, video. Washington, DC: Public Broadcasting Service, 1986.

Shows the jury as they weigh facts, examine evidence, and debate the meaning of justice in a Wisconsin state court.

Lobbying: A Case History. 18 minutes, 16 mm, color. Deerfield, IL: Learning Corporation of America, distributed by Simon & Schuster Communications, 1972.

Outlines ways interested people have organized to influence the outcome of political decision making.

The New Federalism: Shifting Rights or Responsibilities. Filmstrip. Ridgefield, CT: Current Affairs, division of Key Productions.

Shows how various governmental functions are transferred form the federal government to the state government for decisions and reallocation.

State Government. Five filmstrips. Del Mar, CA: CRM/McGraw-Hill Films.

Titles include: "How Does the State Work?" "Who Governs the State?" "How Does the State Serve the People?" "How do the Legislature and Judiciary Work?" "How Do States Work Together?"

State Government: Resurgence of Power. 21 minutes, 16 mm and video. Encyclopedia Britannica Educational Corporation.

Outlines changing roles of state governments extending from California to Maine on responsibilities once reserved by the federal government.

There's Always Next Year: State Legislatures in Action. 36 minutes, 16 mm. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin-Photo Media, 1976.

Explores excitement and confusion of the state legislature in action; shows how citizens can make their voices heard in state legislatures on issues of concerns.

Organizations, Associations, and Publications

National Organizations

American Political Science Association
1527 New Hampshire Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20005

American Society for Public Administration
1120 G. Street, NW, Suite 500
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 393-7878

Publishes *Public Administration Times*, biweekly, and *Public Administration Review*, bi-monthly.

Building Officials and Code Administrators
4051 W. Flossmoor Rd.
Country Club Hills, IL 60477-5795
(312) 799-2300

Conducts seminars and correspondence courses; prepares in-service training programs and assists local organizations in such activities. Holds annual conference and produces many publications, including a bi-monthly magazine, and annual membership directory.

International Association of Chiefs of Police
13 Firstfield Road, P.O. Box 6010
Gaithersburg, MD 20878
(301) 948-0922

Provides consultation and research services in all phases of policy activity. Maintains library, and has several publications.

International City Management Association
1120 G. St., NW, Suite 300
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 626-4600

Publishes a variety of detailed texts on local government planning and administration.

National Association of Country Administrators
P.O. Box 34435
Bethesda, MD 20817
(301) 469-7460

Holds annual meeting and has two publications.

ERIC Clearinghouse for the Social Studies/Social Sciences Education
Social Studies Development Center
2805 E. 10th Street, Suite 120
Indiana University
Bloomington, IN 47405
(812) 335-3838

Has extensive information on social studies. Send for resource list.

Institute for Educational Leadership
1001 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 310
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 822-8405

Coordinates programs at national, state, and local levels for educators and policymakers. Sponsors seminars, maintains small library, publishes triennial newsletter, and numerous policy reports.

National League of Cities
1301 Pennsylvania Avenue, NW, 6th Floor
Washington, DC 20004
(202) 626-3000

League of Women Voters of the United States
1730 M Street,
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 429-1965

National Association of Schools for Public Affairs and Administration
1120 G Street, NW, 5th Floor
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 628-8965

Serves as a national center for information about programs and developments in this field.

National Council for the Social Studies
3501 Newark Street, NW
Washington, DC 20016

Has a strong publication program, including *Social Education*, newsletters, and monographs, and sponsors national and regional conferences.

Social Science Education Consortium
855 Broadway
Boulder, CO 80302
(303) 492-8154

Maintains resource and demonstration center with innovative textbooks, multimedia kits, games and simulations, professional library, and reference materials.

Council of State Governments
Iron Works Pike
P.O. Box 11910
Lexington, KY 40578
(606) 252-2291

National Conference of State Legislatures
1050 17th Street, Suite 2100
Denver, CO 80265
(303) 623-7800

Provides training and development on current issues and concerns. Conducts regional and national seminars.

National Association of Towns & Townships
1522 K Street, NW
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 737-5200

State Organizations

Wisconsin Alliance of Cities
128 E. Wilson St.
Madison, WI 53703
(608) 257-5881

Wisconsin City Management Association
Steve Hintz
Secretariat, UW-Oshkosh
Oshkosh, WI 54901
(414) 424-3230

Wisconsin Coroners and Medical Examiners
Marian Cumming
2124 S. 13th
Manitowoc, WI 54220

Members are willing to speak to high school classes.

Wisconsin Counties Association
802 W. Broadway, Suite 308
Madison, WI 53713
(608) 266-6480

Provides educational programs and lobbying activities. Publishes *Wisconsin Counties*, monthly.

League of Women Voters of Wisconsin
121 S. Hancock
Madison, WI 53703
(608) 256-0827

Wisconsin Municipal Clerks Association
134 S. Locust St.
Reedsburg, WI 53959
(608) 524-6404

Wisconsin Municipal Treasurers Association
7525 W. Greenfield Avenue
West Allis, WI 53214

Wisconsin Chiefs of Police Association
Chief Thaves, executive secretary
116 Humphrey Circle
Shawano, WI 54166
(715) 526-6117

Wisconsin Council of Regional Planning Organizations
214 W. Mifflin Street
Madison, WI 53703

Wisconsin Register of Deeds Association
Cathy Williquette Breunig
111 N. Jefferson
Green Bay, WI 54301
(414) 436-3276

Members are willing to speak to high school classes.

Wisconsin Council for the Social Studies
Appleton Area Schools
Dr. James Snavely, executive secretary
P.O. Box 2019
Appleton, WI 54913
(414) 735-6283

Wisconsin Taxpayers Alliance
335 W. Wilson St.
Madison, WI 53703
(608) 255-4581

Conducts educational programs in schools; provides research and serves as a consultant on government administration, tax policy, and legislation for municipal officials, legislators, and media, and other organizations. Has several publications.

Publications

Journal of State Government (bimonthly)
Council of State Governments
Iron Works Pike
P.O. Box 11910
Lexington, KY 40578-9989

Subscription: $40
Regularly has theme related to state government.

Municipality (monthly)
League of Wisconsin Municipalities
122 W. Washington Avenue
Madison, WI 53703

Subscription: $10
Serves to exchange ideas and information on municipal affairs for city and village officials in Wisconsin.

Transactions (annual)
Wisconsin Academy of Sciences, Arts, and Letters
1922 University Avenue
Madison, WI 53705

Dues: $25
Explores features of Wisconsin and its people; some articles have reference to Wisconsin government.

Wisconsin Academy Review (quarterly)
Academy of Sciences, Arts and Letters
1922 University Avenue
Madison, WI 53703

Subscription: $15
Encourages investigation and dissemination of knowledge in the sciences, arts, and humanities; some issues have articles related to Wisconsin government.

Wisconsin Business Journal (monthly)
450 N. Sunny Slope Road
Brookfield, WI 53005

Subscription: $35
Provides information concerning the business environment of Wisconsin which has implications for government.

Wisconsin Business Women (quarterly)
P.O. Box 2496
Appleton, WI 54913

Subscription: $3
Includes information concerning events; discusses legislative and governmental issues concerning women.

Wisconsin Law Review (bimonthly)
University of Wisconsin Law School
975 Bascom Hall
Madison, WI 53706

Subscription: $24
Includes articles, book reviews, notes, and comments concerning law and various court cases.

Wisconsin Magazine of History (quarterly)
State Historical Society of Wisconsin
816 State Street
Madison, WI 53706

Membership: $25 to $44
State Historical Society serves as state archives; collects resources; administers a variety of programs; and publishes historical materials.

Wisconsin Taxpayer (monthly)
Wisconsin Taxpayers' Alliance
335 W. Wilson
Madison, WI 53703

Subscription: $5
Provides research and serves as consultant on government administration, tax policy, and legislation for municipal officials, legislators, the media, and others.

Wisconsin Women's Law Journal (annual)
University of Wisconsin Law School
975 Bascom Hall
Madison, WI 53706

Subscription: $8
Grows out of two traditions: "law in action" approach which explores confluence of legal theory and its effect on women and the interdisciplinary design of women's studies.